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ABSTRACT

This report presents background papers and recommendations concerning the federal-university partnership in extension programs, continuing education, and community service. Issues touched on include the multiplicity of programs, legislative lifespans, lack of policy, need to strengthen institutions, revenue sharing, health care, continuing education for teachers, continuing education for social workers, programs for minority businessmen, cultural programs, education and training for public service, quality of the performance of institutions of higher education, increases in part-time students, and evaluation of Title I Higher Education Act programs. (MJM)

THE IMPORTANCE OF SERVICE

Federal Support for Continuing Education

ED 097822

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EIGHTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL ON EXTENSION AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

March 31, 1974

THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL
ON
EXTENSION AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

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March 29, 1974

THE PRESIDENT,
The White House,
Washington, D.C.

DEAR MR. PRESIDENT:

On behalf of the National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education, I am pleased to forward to you our Eighth Annual Report, *The Importance of Service: Federal Support for Continuing Education.*

In the past, our Council has frequently noted the creative relationship that has developed between Federal agencies and institutions of higher education. This year our concern is with the needs of individuals and communities and how the university-Federal agency partnership is responding to the requirements of the general public.

Through university programs of research extension and continuing education, our Federal Government has built a capacity to serve important individual and community needs in fields as diverse as health, minority business and the fine arts. The cost of meeting these needs is counted in billions of dollars annually. Our central objective is to help insure that these university-based programs retain, as their central focus, service to the communities and to the people they are intended to serve.

In this light, we respectfully submit our findings and recommendations through the attached report.

Respectfully,

RUTH O. CRASSWELLER,
Chairman.

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THE HIGHER EDUCATION ACT OF 1965

SECTION 109

The National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education "* * * shall review the administration and effectiveness of all federally supported extension and continuing education programs, including community service programs, make recommendations with respect thereto, and make annual reports * * * of its findings and recommendations to the Secretary (of Health, Education, and Welfare) and to the President."

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INTRODUCTION

Section 109 of the Higher Education Act of 1965 provides that the National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education

" * * shall review the administration and effectiveness of all federally supported extension and continuing education programs, including community service programs, make recommendations with respect thereto, and make annual reports * * * of its findings and recommendations * * * to the President."*

This report constitutes the annual review required of the Council: an examination of the Federal involvement in extension, continuing education, and community service programs.

This Federal involvement is massive, whether described in terms of Federal dollars spent, educational institutions involved, persons directly affected, or communities served. It is an involvement which has grown rapidly over the past decade without having been given a conscious sense of direction. It is the result of many different laws, administered in many different ways by many different departments and agencies of the Federal Government. Yet there are some common strands which explain what exists and which help reveal both strengths and deficiencies.

The Nexus

The one common denominator for the entire range of Federal activity in extension and continuing education can be simply stated. ***It is the provision of Federal dollars for use by institutions of higher education in providing to individuals and communities those services identified as being sufficiently important to the public interest to warrant some degree of public financial support.*** The ways in which these dollars are provided, the purposes for which they are spent and the impact they achieve in the public interest are therefore all central to our concern. □

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AN OVERVIEW

Through programs of extension, continuing education, and community service, the resources of higher education are being applied to the problems of poverty, crime, drug abuse, health care, and environmental degradation, among others. This involvement is fundamentally changing the university's traditional self-image and its role in society.

Although proof is elusive, this involvement is almost certainly having fundamental effects on nearly every aspect of American life.

The basic purpose of this Council is to propose ways in which this Federal-university partnership can be improved for the benefit of the American people.

Scope

In examining the broad range of activity through federally supported programs of extension, continuing education, and community service, we find some 212 distinct programs, with an annual cost of nearly $4 billion. We also find that much can be done within the Federal Government and within universities to improve the administration and the effectiveness of these programs.

For purposes of our review, we define programs of extension, continuing education, and community service in this way: Those federally funded programs which provide higher education, usually on a part-time basis for adults; or which through research application, institutional activities, and technical assistance use the resources of higher education in support of community efforts to mitigate societal problems. Included also are those Federal programs which support higher educational opportunities for adults who are returning for full-time study after a substantial break in the normal educational process.

Multiplicity of Programs

Specifically, we find a pronounced tendency to legislate and fund these programs as discrete entities. This has led to creation of many programs with similar or related purposes, administered by different departments and agencies. Such a multiplication of programs spread across many agencies makes coordination, planning, and effective use of university resources vastly more difficult.

Legislative Lifespans

Much of the legislation establishing these programs has a lifespan of 5 years or less. While there are valid reasons for this, long-range planning, effective administration, and achievement of long-term goals are hampered within the Government and within the university because of uncertainty about the continued existence of these programs.

Lack of Policy

We also find that there is no common policy governing use of university resources by Federal agencies, no central agency with primary responsibility for relating to institutions of higher education, and too few coordinating mechanisms designed to assure that the many programs of the Federal Government constitute a coherent whole. Under such conditions, duplication of effort and contradiction of purpose are hard to avoid.

Need To Strengthen Institutions

Finally, we recognize that despite increasingly heavy reliance on colleges and universities to assist in the solution of community problems, and despite increasingly heavy fund outlays for this purpose, little has yet been done by the Federal Government to strengthen the capacity of institutions to serve Federal program purposes. Instead, the Federal Government has typically used the existing quality of institutional re-

sources and the existing structures for their delivery. This approach differs markedly from Federal programs in space and research which emphasized upgrading of institutional capabilities.

These difficulties are generic to the present legislative base and administrative structure under which these programs operate. In more detailed form, we have cited and examined these difficulties in our two previous annual reports. Over the past year, however, a new difficulty has become apparent and warrants some special scrutiny.

Revenue Sharing

In our Seventh Annual Report, we endorsed the concept of revenue sharing with the qualification that care be exercised in deciding which categorical programs should remain intact when transitions to revenue-sharing approaches occur. Events of the past year indicate that the straightforward replacement of categorical programs with special revenue-sharing measures poses problems of such complexity that further reexamination of this issue is required.

We remain strongly supportive of the objectives and purposes of the President's revenue-sharing approaches; however with respect to programs of extension, continuing education, and community service we earnestly recommend that two considerations mark the implementation of that effort.

- First, if a categorical program is judged a failure, it be eliminated as a failure on the merits of the case. Revenue sharing should not be used as a deus ex machina to eliminate programs by the back door route. Rather, the test should be whether revenue sharing can be a means for pursuing sound programs through new processes of decision and action.
- Second, for many purposes we must remain a single nation rather than a collection of States. Pollution of the air is a problem for all. Crime recognizes no State boundaries. Problems of unemploymen can better be countered at the national level rather than at State and local levels. Poverty in Louisiana is as much a problem for America as it is for the State. Unless revenue-sharing approaches recognize this, they will be less a victory for decentralization and popular control, and more a defeat for national solidarity.

We feel that there has been too much bad rhetoric associated with revenue sharing. Our key concern is that the conditions under which special revenue sharing may operate could be so drawn that local and State determinations are not really allowed to prevail, and that the result may be so diluted that neither Federal goals and objectives nor State and local goals and objectives are properly influential.

Many of the extension and continuing education programs begun as categorical Federal grant activities deserve to be continued, either in their current form or under revenue sharing. The need for these programs continues, and the funds to meet these needs should continue to be available, whether they are administered as categorical grants or a feature of a revenue-sharing package.

In short, while we are concerned with how programs are operated and administered, we are more concerned about the availability and relevance of these programs in terms of meeting public needs and providing public services.

To examine this concern from the perspective of concrete program activity, we chose this year to focus our attention on six areas of important activity in extension and continuing education. These are: (1) Health care, (2) continuing education for teachers, (3) continuing education for social workers, (4) programs for minority businessmen, (5) cultural programs, and (6) programs of education and training for public service. A summary of our review of each of these program areas is contained in the appendix to this report.

Health Care

The Federal involvement in the expansion of the health care system has increased substantially in recent years. One-third of the 212 Federal programs of extension and continuing education fall into the general category of "health services."

This Federal involvement uses the resources of institutions of higher education to serve three basic purposes: (1) To support basic biomedical research, (2) to develop medical and health manpower, and (3) to extend the benefits of health care to broader segments of the American population.

Through such legislation as the Social Security Act, which supports the medicare and medicaid programs, the Federal Government has provided the means through which large segments of the American population can obtain health care services. This has created a demand for health services greater than the existing research base and the available medical manpower pool can provide. Of particular concern to this Council is the extension of that research to practitioners providing health care and the availability of continuing

education programs to expand and improve the manpower pool.

The need for continuing education is apparent at all levels of the health professions. This need stems from several factors, but especially from the insistence that the quality of the health professions be maintained on a par with new knowledge and new technology. Continuing education is vital also as an essential component of career upgrading among many health-related occupations, and as an essential response to meet the expanding and changing responsibilities of the health professions themselves.

There is today an unprecedented interest within these professions to reexamine the continuing education needs of their members and to use the licensing and certification process as ways to insure that their members will continue their education and increase their professional competence.

Federally supported programs of continuing education in health and medicine therefore serve a clientele group with well-defined needs and interests, as well as a clientele which believes strongly in continuing education as a necessary corollary to maintaining professional skills and standards.

Similarly, through regional medical programs, neighborhood health clinics, area health education centers, federally supported programs are seeking innovative ways to transfer the benefits of a university-based biomedical research industry to those who are most in need of such benefits. The development of these community-based health care facilities is a vital part of the Federal strategy to extend health care to expanding portions of the American population, and is a reflection of a Federal determination to help design and implement a health care delivery system that will dispense efficiently basic health services to individuals and communities.

Continuing Education for Teachers

In the past, Federal interest in teacher training centered on support of preservice training of teachers to meet the professional manpower needs of all levels of the educational system, from elementary education to the university postgraduate level. The magnitude of Federal interest has greatly diminished in recent years, primarily as a result of leveling student enrollments and, consequently, lower institutional manpower needs.

As a result, Federal support for teacher training is now shifting from preservice training to inservice training; from producing greater numbers of teachers to improving the quality of teachers already employed. Continuing education is therefore becoming a more important element in the Federal Government's concern with quality education.

Coupled with this concern is mounting public pressure for the teaching profession to stand accountable for performance within the classroom. We regard this trend as both healthy and important. We do not believe that academic freedom should provide a sanctuary for ineptitude; conversely we believe the public can and should demand excellence from those public servants who choose a teaching career. As a result, we strongly favor an increase in continuing education programs for teachers and support the redirection of Federal assistance from preservice to inservice training of the teaching profession.

Continuing Education for Social Workers

Federal support for the continuing education of social workers is being sharply curtailed except for those categories of social workers who have some direct affiliation with health service. Continuing education programs for those categories of social workers which are more closely identified with the nonclinical social action programs have all but disappeared.

There are 185,000 professionally trained social workers in the United States. The spate of new social programs, created within the past decade, was not matched by a commensurate growth in the numbers of professionally trained social workers. Nearly 60 percent of our professionally trained social workers today have been active for two decades or more.

Social programs have undergone dramatic change; professional social workers, as a group, have been practicing for a relatively long period. It is not surprising, therefore, that over 75 percent of practicing social workers have indicated in a recent survey that they participated in continuing education activities within the past 3 years. In that same survey, "continuing education" outranked all other categories identified by social workers as an area of major professional need. Of the 86 professional schools in social work, 63 have now established formal programs in continuing education.

Concurrently, most of the persons drawn into the expanding social programs generated during the 1960's were not professionally trained. They were selected for their enthusiasm, their racial identity or simply their availability to fill organizational vacancies. Equipping these persons with the formal training to supplement their job-gained experience constitutes

another and critically important continuing education need within the broad field of social work.

Programs for Minority Businessmen

The Federal investment in expanding and strengthening minority participation in business requires a stronger emphasis on education, training, and technical assistance for minority businessmen. The Federal effort has concentrated on providing capital for minority business growth, and has placed too little emphasis on management assistance as an essential corollary to the growth and survival of such businesses. The result has been a high failure rate and a growing disenchantment with the program.

There is no simple remedy. An infrastructure of sound counseling, training in business practice, and readily available technical assistance during the first critical years of a new business needs to be created at many points throughout the country. While the Federal Government can take the lead in creating such an infrastructure, the active cooperation of lending institutions and institutions of higher education is required.

We believe that colleges and universities have a unique opportunity for public service in relation to Federal programs for minority businessmen. By extending technical assistance, and by designing relevant programs of training for minority entrepreneurs, institutions of higher education can play a critical role in fostering forms of social change which would bring minorities more actively into the mainstream of American economic life.

Cultural Programs

Federal support for the arts and humanities represents one of the most rapidly expanding activities of the Federal Government. Largely as a result of the creation of the National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities in 1965, the Government has assumed a major responsibility in areas that it previously assumed to be the special co[illegible]n of the private sector and independent philanthro[illegible].

Federal support for the foundation in fiscal year 1973 amounted to $93.6 million; a year later, the foundation was authorized a budget of $145 million, thus making the Federal Government the largest single patron of the arts and the humanities. Despite the magnitude of these still-growing sums, the Federal Government sees itself as only a partner with other institutions and individuals in providing sorely needed support to cultural activities, and has mandated State grant programs and statewide advisory councils to help implement that view.

Through the National Endowment for the Arts, the National Endowment for the Humanities, and other Federal agencies, significant efforts are underway: (1) To provide general support to enable artists and humanists to practice their disciplines, and (2) to relate the arts and humanities to contemporary affairs and community problems. In the latter instance, both endowments have initiated programs that support the participation of artists and humanists to aid the general public to understand public issues more broadly and to help communities resolve their social and economic problems.

Education and Training for Public Service

The Federal Government, on behalf of its military and civilian work force, is a major producer and consumer of continuing education. Since the enactment of the Government Employees Training Act of 1958, an expansion and improvement of education and training for the Federal civil service has occurred. Through its own programs of education and training, as well as through expanded use of colleges and universities, the Federal Government is seeking to insure that its employees remain abreast of new knowledge, skills, and technologies.

The military departments have long ago established a strong concern for education and training of military personnel. Through a vast and interconnected network of educational facilities, they provide professional education and technical training which meets high standards of excellence. In addition the military departments have encouraged and supported extensive involvement in university continuing education programs in the effort to increase the educational attainments of persons in military service.

Institutions of Higher Education

In the final analysis, the success or failure of federally supported programs of extension, continuing education, and community service hinges on the performance of participating colleges and universities. The quality of their performance, in turn, depends on a number of interrelated factors.

Interest

High interest in community service and continuing education has been sparked by disparate events which have coincided in time. The leveling or decline in stu-

dent enrollments at many colleges and universities has released facilities and faculty resources which are being applied to continuing education and community service.

Participation in programs of extension, continuing education, and community service is therefore viewed as an increasingly attractive aspect of institutional mission.

Nontraditional Approaches

An increasing number of colleges and universities have made special efforts to redesign their traditional educational offerings and their traditional degree requirements in order to better service the part-time student. The advent of the external degree, the compression of semester-long courses into a period of several days and the use of various college level "equivalency" examinations have revitalized interest in continuing education. By an imaginative array of means—counseling, examination, formal courses, travel, and work experience among them—many institutions are pioneering the concepts of "an individual curriculum"; that is, a program of individual learning which suits the need of a particular student while meeting academic tests of sufficiency for the award of a baccalaureate degree.

Beyond this, entirely new institutions, representing major departures from tradition, have been created to fill the growing need in continuing education. Among these, Empire State College—a part of the university system of the State of New York—is demonstrating the kinds of flexibilities and educational principles best suited to the adult who seeks educational enrichment and academic credentials.

Summary

These developments give encouraging testimony to the growth and vitality of the continuing education field. A special tribute is due to the thousands of individuals, hundreds of academic institutions, and the limited number of foundations and professional associations which have made possible these advances and which are providing a strong base for further progress. Similarly, we recognize and acknowledge the crucial role of Federal legislation and dollars in providing the opportunity and the resources which enable educational institutions to serve community interests and the continuing education needs of our society.

Feedback Effect

Not many years ago, a marked tendency existed to make sharp distinctions between an institution's basic responsibilities to full-time students and its community service activities. The two efforts were perceived as unrelated and perhaps competitive. As more and more institutions have become more deeply involved in community service, they find that this involvement in the world around them produces learnings which can be fed back into the normal curriculum. Hence community service is not simply a one-way flow of extending university resources to serve public needs. What is consistently gained by the faculties involved is in sight, perspective, and relevant experience in the realities of public problems. These gains are improving oncampus teaching and research in hundreds of institutions today.

Increases in Part-Time Students

For the past 3 years, the number of part-time students attending institutions of higher education has exceeded the number of full-time students. The part-time students, however, still remain the stepchildren of higher education. Their tuition payments are often proportionally higher than those of full-time students.

Most of these part-time students are working adults, but the differences implicit in this are sometimes not taken sufficiently into account and they are exposed to teaching techniques and materials traditionally found appropriate for juveniles. Classes are still too often scheduled for the convenience of the institution and its faculty, not for the convenience of the adult student. Federal student assistance programs are still strongly biased in favor of the full-time student. However, this neglect of the part-time student shows definite signs of change.

Evaluation of the Title I (HEA) Program

No report of this Council would be complete without a specific mention of the community service program established under title I of the Higher Education Act. Over the past year, we have been conducting a nationwide review of the title I (HEA) program as mandated by the Education Amendments Act of 1972. In concert with the consulting firm of Peat, Marwick, Mitchell & Co., we are reviewing title I projects in approximately 30 States. The purpose of these reviews is to determine which projects represent the most effective use of title I funds. In this regard, we are seeking to establish, on the basis of certain criteria of success, the kinds of project activity which best express the purposes of the title I program.

We have submitted to the concerned congressional committees three interim progress reports on our evaluation. In these reports, we have defined the framework within which the evaluation is being conducted, have given examples of title I activities which are illustrative of major issues affecting the program, and have offered some tentative conclusions which are now being examined in depth as we proceed with data gathering and analysis. We expect to present our final report to the Congress on March 31, 1975. □

RECOMMENDATIONS
AND
EXPLANATORY COMMENTS

RECOMMENDATIONS

I

Because of the accelerating rate of medical and scientific development, the medical profession within the past decade has given substantial support to the emergence of continuing medical education programs, especially at the postgraduate level. These programs are largely technical in nature and are designed primarily to help prevent professional obsolescence and to maintain the currently acceptable standards of medical practice.

At the same time, and largely as a result of Federal initiative, access to medical care has been increased, most notably among the poor, the ethnic minorities, and the disadvantaged. Although the technical competence of the health care provided to these individuals should be no less or greater than the technical competence of the health care provided to others, it is our observation that treatment may be improved significantly if more physicians and their staffs are familiar with the distinctive mental, social, and environmental pressures which often complicate the delivery of health care to such individuals.

We recommend that the Federal Government support and encourage teaching institutions to design and implement continuing education programs that enhance the physician's understanding of the special health care needs of the poor.

II

Through medicare, medicaid, and similar programs, the Federal Government has played a major role in: (1) Increasing the public demand for quality health care, and (2) providing the financial assistance to pay for such care. Much of this Federal activity has occurred abruptly and with inadequate forethought to the effects it would have on the allocation of health care resources.

The straining of these resources has called attention to the need for the rapid development of continuing medical education programs, and the upgrading of individuals in the allied health professions. In the past, Federal agencies have generously supported medical education; they have not been equally as generous in the support of the allied health fields.

This Council is concerned about the status of those in the allied health professions, particularly in light of the facts that: (1) Individuals in these fields are increasingly needed for the effective delivery of health care services, and (2) these professions have traditionally provided an entry point for disadvantaged and minority groups into the medical and health professions.

We recommend that the Allied Health Professions Personnel Training Act and the Regional Health program be reauthorized to help maintain and raise the standards of practice of those in the allied health fields.

III

A total of 86 percent (17 million) of the American population over the age of 65 suffers from chronic disease. These persons make greater use of health care facilities; require more substantial attention of health care personnel; and at the annual average rate of $800, pay more for health care services than do others below the age of 65. In addition, the aging comprise the majority of those committed to mental institutions and are the major recipients of the health care provided through nursing homes, over 40 percent of which are funded directly and indirectly by the Federal Government.

Despite these figures, the professional and ancillary manpower responsive to the special needs of the aging are acutely lacking, as are lacking the training programs and continuing education opportunities neces-

sary to increase the numbers and quality of this manpower.

We recognize the special health care needs of the aging and recommend increased Federal support for the training of geriatric psychiatrists and counselors, mental institution staffs, nursing home staffs, and the personnel of other institutions that routinely provide care for the aging.

IV

The Federal Government has assumed an on-going responsibility to help maintain the quality of the teaching profession, particularly at the elementary and secondary levels of instruction. In recent years, manpower needs for the teaching profession have stabilized for the first time in decades. Proportionately fewer individuals are being recruited into the profession, and proportionately fewer individuals are retiring from the profession than ever before.

The majority of teachers in the schools today, consequently, have accrued substantial experience and are beyond the credentialing and licensing stages of their professional development. As Federal agencies consider shifting the focus of their support for teacher training from numerical increase to improvement of quality, focus must also shift from preservice training to inservice training at a fairly advanced and sophisticated level.

As a corollary to support for inservice training for experienced teachers, Federal agencies, especially the Office of Education and the National Institute of Education, should undertake demonstration projects toward the development of acceptable teacher evaluation techniques. We view the development and application of such demonstration projects as essential to the maintenance of quality teaching in the schools.

We recommend that the Federal commitment to inservice continuing education for experienced teachers be increased and strengthened and that immediate attention be given to the development and dissemination of improved teacher evaluation techniques.

V

The relationship between local schools and local communities has changed. Increasingly, the quality of teaching that takes place in the schools is being directly related to the special needs of the communities these schools are designed to serve. As a consequence, schools are being urged by local communities to demonstrate a more relevant interest in community problems and issues.

We regard these as basically healthy changes. They are in keeping with a broadening accountability by the schools to the public which supports them. To aid schools to relate better to community needs, it is our view that teacher-training institutions ought to play a vital role in alerting teachers to community needs through the kinds of continuing education programs provided to them.

Greater use of local institutional and manpower resources can significantly affect the performance of teachers in the classroom. By utilizing such local institutional resources as day care centers, public assistance and family welfare agencies, and correctional facilities as appropriate sites of teacher-training activities, teacher-training institutions may help expand a teacher's comprehension of the community he or she serves. In addition, by supplementing regular teacher-training faculty with participation by local community leaders in the preparation and retraining of teachers, these institutions can also demonstrate their willingness to absorb into the curriculum the positive contributions that community leaders can provide to educational renewal.

We recommend that teacher-training institutions promote inservice training opportunities at such community-based locations as day care centers, public assistance and family welfare agencies, correctional institutions, and other local agencies, and that these same institutions broaden their programs to include the participation by community leaders in the training of teachers.

VI

Teacher-training institutions exercise a major responsibility in helping teachers respond to changing professional needs. These institutions however often lack the special resources that would enable them to provide teachers with the full range of services they require. Most of these resources, particularly research and research byproducts, exist in a select group of larger universities to which teacher-training institutions and teachers do not have ready access.

It is our view that cooperation between research-oriented universities and teacher-training institutions should be expanded. Through greater faculty consultation, program sharing and research transmittal

and application, these universities may greatly expand the ability of teacher-training institutions to provide teachers with a fuller and more timely response to their professional needs.

We recommend that Federal support encourage the transmittal of relevant research from major research universities to teacher-training institutions through appropriate continuing education and extension services.

VII

In recent years, the Federal Government has made substantial cutbacks in Federal support for social work training programs. This has seriously affected the ability of schools of social work to produce the manpower needed, particularly in the areas of health assistance and health maintenance.

Despite these manpower training reductions, Federal legislation to support and expand the health care delivery system has grown significantly. Social workers have traditionally exercised major responsibilities in the delivery of health service and information. We view these responsibilities as positive and constructive and anticipate that they will be expanded as a result of the Health Maintenance Organizations Act and other Federal health-related legislation.

We recommend that Federal manpower training programs for professional social workers be maintained and strengthened to continue their ability to participate actively in the delivery of health care services to expanding segments of the American public.

VIII

A major development in social work has been the participation of paraprofessionals and nonprofessionals in the delivery of social services. Although the participation of these individuals is essential and has had a major impact on the availability of social services, many of them lack the training needed for effective performance.

Most current continuing education programs are directed primarily to professionally trained social workers. It is our view that more programs should be designed for those who have major social service responsibilities but who have never been exposed to professional social work training. Such training, we believe, would help upgrade the quality of social service personnel; expand a common understanding of the principles of social work; and help improve the effectiveness with which social service agencies respond to client needs.

We propose that the National Institute of Mental Health's Continuing Education Branch exercise leadership in identifying the training needs of paraprofessionals and designing programs responsive to those needs.

We recommend that studies be undertaken to measure and project the extent of the involvement of paraprofessionals and nonprofessionals engaged in social work activities, and that a specific focus of these studies be the determination of the kinds of continuing education programs that would be most helpful in extending professional social work training to them.

IX

The ability of ethnic cultures to maintain their identity and to transmit that identity from one generation to the next is made difficult by the tendency of the mainstream of American cultural tradition to absorb and dilute such cultures. In the process, much craft, folklore, language, and art are lost.

Those who are often most knowledgeable about the past of ethnic cultures are the senior members of these cultures. By providing continuing education opportunities to elderly members of these cultures, the Council wishes to underline a position which it has taken repeatedly in the past—that continuing education is a lifelong effort and does not end at prescribed times in an individual's life.

We propose that the National Endowment for the Arts and the National Endowment for the Humanities undertake demonstration projects that will train senior members of ethnic cultures to teach these cultures to schoolchildren at the earliest level of instruction, and that through such projects, a double purpose will be served: (1) Of demonstrating the continuing usefulness of the elderly to society, and (2) of preserving and strengthening an understanding of ethnic cultures by transmitting an awareness of these cultures through the classroom to young people.

We recommend that elderly members of ethnic groups be trained to teach ethnic cultures to schoolchildren at the earliest possible level of instruction.

X

Although the American bicentennial is a national celebration, substantial efforts are being made to assure

that the celebration has strong grassroots support among local communities. To help interpret the full cultural significance of the American Revolution, and to increase the cooperation between institutions of higher education and local communities, it is urged that university extension services become a major instrument through which university-based artists and humanists can join with local communities in planning and implementing programs to expand the public's understanding of the American experience.

University resources have been used regularly by Federal agencies to aid in their response to community needs and problems. This has often led to a productive and positive partnership among universities, communities, and Federal agencies.

We recommend that the American Revolution Bicentennial Commission and the National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities jointly promote public participation in the celebration of the American Revolution by using university extension services to involve artists and humanists in community planning of bicentennial activities.

XI

Schools of business management have not traditionally had special capabilities in the field of small business administration, and the void is even more pronounced with respect to minority enterprise. In addition, few schools have had organized programs of research and technical assistance focusing on the minority businessman. It is therefore especially important that institutions of higher education be stimulated to mount programs which focus upon these needs. The expansion of minority enterprise requires a network of educational, training, and research resources which can sustain such an effort.

Field investigations and reports compiled by both the Special Task Force on Minority Enterprise and the General Accounting Office suggest that the type of management assistance extended to minority business persons often needs to be tailormade and adapted to the special circumstances of the business in question. Moreover, such service needs to be readily available on a timely basis and not be deferred until businesses are in financial jeopardy. Also, the resources of banks and other lending institutions as well as business and management associations constitute a relatively untapped pool of expertise which could be effectively deployed to assist minority businesses. It, therefore, is essential that both educational and private financial and business organizations be coordinated and become more directly involved in servicing minority businesses on a continuing basis and in ways specific to the needs of individual businesses.

We recommend that increased Federal support be given to a select number of postsecondary institutions which would serve as resource centers through which research, training, and technical assistance programs for minority business enterprise would be developed. We further recommend that such resource centers be community-based and utilize the expertise of local businesses and financial institutions.

We also recommend that these resource centers make practical business experience available to minority business candidates through intern or apprenticeship programs involving especially successful businesses, including those owned by minorities.

XII

Over the past 15 years, significant progress has been made in improving education and training in the public service. The skill and experience developed by the U.S. Civil Service Commission in providing leadership to Federal departments in education and training constitutes an important resource for improving public administration at State and local levels of government. As increasingly complex and challenging tasks confront State and local officials, assistance from the Commission in providing them with advice and guidance in education and training can have a significant effect on the quality of governance in our Federal structure.

Much education and training is in the nature of preparation for the future. If it is to have maximum impact, the education and training of public officials must bear a relationship to future career directions, to the extent they can be planned or known in advance. While an excellent job is being done in training, career development and career planning have fallen behind; hence, the fullest value from training cannot reasonably be expected.

The technical peculiarities of the Federal personnel system make long-term educational assignments difficult. If more long-term education would prove advantageous to the public interest, these technical difficulties should be removed or lessened. At the moment, it is not clear whether the massive commitment to short-term training is more functional from the standpoint of effective public service or whether

this commitment is due to the difficulties of providing long-term training due to aberrations in the personnel system.

A repeated view is that the employees who receive training are those whose schedules are sufficiently relaxed to enable their organization to sanction their absence. We believe that the best—and therefore often the busiest—should receive opportunities to burnish their skills and add to their knowledge.

We recommend that the U.S. Civil Service Commission in its future responsibilities: (1) Give greater priority to assisting State and local governments in the education and training of their employees, (2) seek ways to better insure that the training provided meshes well with patterns of career development, (3) ascertain whether the limited use of long-term educational programs is in the public interest, and (4) help insure that training is available to those employees who can best apply the training in the improved performance of the Government's business.

We further recommend that the U.S. Civil Service Commission study the military educational system to determine the extent to which this model may provide insights and perspectives which would improve education and training in the civilian sector of public service. □

BACKGROUND PAPERS

SCIENCE AND SERVICE: FEDERAL SUPPORT FOR THE EXTENSION OF HEALTH CARE

Introduction

In last year's annual report, we noted that nearly 30 percent of the 208 federally supported programs in higher continuing education fell into the general category of "health services." These health service programs support a variety of purposes and clientele, involve many different kinds of institutions, both academic and medical, and respond in various ways to the manpower needs of an increasing number of professions and health-related occupations.

In theory, at least, the continuing education components of these programs are intended, first, to maintain and improve the quality of health care manpower and services; and, second, to extend the benefits of health care more broadly and equitably to expanding segments of the American population.

Our purpose in reviewing these health service programs is primarily to help determine the role that continuing education and extension services play in the evolution of Federal support for medicine and allied health. Our interest is not only to outline recent and current Federal program activity in these fields, but to emphasize those activities which unite Federal and university efforts to extend health care benefits to individuals and to communities.

Primary health care in the United States is influenced largely by two factors: The pivotal role the hospital has played in the provision of clinical treatment, at least since 1910, the year of the Flexner report; and the American entrepreneurial commitment to the independent and private practice of its physicians. The ability of these hospitals and physicians to undertake medical research, provide diagnosis and treatment, and to teach and be of service is generally conceded to be among the finest in the world.

But the complexity of the modern hospital and the professional specialization of physicians is not always what is needed by an individual whose health demands are less complex and less special. There is nothing extraordinary about being ill. The prevention, recurrence, or acuteness of illness require various medical responses, and despite the reputation that the American health care system has for its pluralism, its volunteerism, its specialization, it is, in the end, not yet always prepared to respond efficiently and routinely to the ordinary needs of ordinary individuals.

Health Insurance

The United States is the only major nation that does not have some kind of national health insurance coverage. Its citizens are subject to serious illness and medical treatment often at great personal and financial risks to themselves and to their families. If the illness is acute, it is often necessary for an individual to relocate himself geographically in order to avail himself of the best hospital facility. And if the illness is not acute, the same individual may become an unintentional victim of his doctor's schedule and convenience.

This coexistence of the world's most sophisticated medical technology and personnel, alongside a health delivery system that leaves millions of rural and innercity Americans without direct access to proper medical attention, is one of the major concerns of Federal agencies and the medical and allied health professions.

There is a limited supply of physicians, osteopaths, and dentists; and there is an equally limited supply of the medical facilities and other resources that are expressly needed by individuals in a wide variety of geographic areas. The allied health professions are severely fragmented and disjointed, with no clear central objective and no systematic relationship with the medical profession or with each other. Health care costs are rising to the point of becoming prohibitive for the ordinary individual. New diseases are appearing

that press for the development of new medical treatments, and these developments in turn require even further specialization by medical professionals and help to inhibit their ability to provide basic medical services.

National Spending

The funds that are being expended nationally on medicine and health care are now estimated to be in the magnitude of $75 billion. The number of people professionally engaged in providing some kind of health care is also substantial and now approaching nearly 4 million. The basic resources available to improving health may be inadequate by some measurements, but they are nonetheless considerable and provide a convincing foundation upon which to construct a better health care system. The question, therefore, seems not to be the adequacy of the resources themselves, but the effectiveness with which the benefits of these resources are delivered to their ultimate beneficiary, the American citizen.

Council Concern

The concerns of this Council regarding: (1) The quality of the American health care system, and (2) the extension of the services of that system to the American people, are concerns that have emanated from the two preceding reports that we have made on the general subject of the Federal involvement in extension, continuing education, and community service. In our Sixth Annual Report, "A Question of Stewardship: A Study of the Federal Role in Higher Continuing Education," we identified and analyzed at some length the nature of that Federal involvement in terms of agencies, programs, and expenditures. To continue our analysis of the administration and effectiveness of these activities, our Seventh Annual Report, "A Measure of Success: Federal Support for Continuing Education," focused on some of the effects that these activities were having upon institutions of higher education.

As noted in these earlier reports, nearly 30 percent of the total number of Federal programs concerned in whole or in part with continuing education, extension, and community service fall into the general category of health services. Within this category, there are 59 Federal programs which variously provide continuing education to the medical and allied health profession. This heavy concentration of program effort results from: (1) A massive and recent Federal involvement in extending the health care system, which has strained the available manpower needed to provide such care; (2) new biomedical discoveries which must be mastered by medical and allied health personnel and used in providing health care; and (3) a desire to improve the quality of health care and to make it more broadly available.

There are other reasons as well. The increasing demands for more and better health care by individuals, and for improved public and environmental health measures by both individuals and communities, provide a strong popular base from which to make such demands. This insistence at the grassroots level on improved health care facilities is consequently reflected not only in the budgets of the State legislatures, but in the increasing programs and expenditures that are being generated at the Federal level as well.

A key to both an assessment of an effective health care system and the provision of continuing education opportunities for health care professionals is, of course, the participation of institutions of higher education in appropriate service and training programs. This participation is particularly true of the medical schools and such related university-based activities carried on by schools of nursing, public health, dentistry, social work, and allied health.

In fact, the extent to which Federal and State Governments, local communities, and individuals and institutions of higher education have mutually agreed to the heightened priority of a better health care system effectively singles out "health care" as the one area in extension and continuing education where there is almost total recognition regarding its importance and urgency.

Federal Spending

The particular role of the Federal Government is vital. Support for a wide range of health programs is scattered throughout the Federal bureaucracy. The American Medical Association approximated the level of Federal support for medical and health programs to be over $28 billion for fiscal year 1973, a steady and substantial increase over preceding years. Although 24 agencies are involved in this total expenditure, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, which administers the Government's medicare and medicaid programs, accounts for two-thirds of this expenditure. Three other agencies—Veterans Administration, Defense, and the Environmental Protection Agency—account for the bulk of the remaining sums (see table I, p. 21).

Table I.—Comparison of fiscal 1973 and 1972 medical-health budgets of Federal departments, agencies, and commissions

	Fiscal 1973	Fiscal 1972
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare	$18, 111, 270, 000	$17, 635, 048, 000
Veterans Administration	2, 900, 701, 000	2, 495, 486, 000
Department of Defense	2, 810, 117, 000	2, 392, 912, 000
Environmental Protection Agency	2, 371, 014, 000	2, 448, 400, 000
Federal Employees Health Insurance	604, 200, 000	514, 200, 000
Department of Agriculture	362, 196, 000	67, 399, 000
Department of State	258, 609, 161	243, 078, 877
Office of Economic Opportunity	149, 400, 000	154, 034, 000
Department of Commerce	114, 744, 000	104, 725, 000
Atomic Energy Commission	103, 631, 000	97, 686, 000
Department of Labor	99, 871, 416	60, 056, 619
Department of the Interior	96, 624, 000	82, 666, 528
Department of Transportation	68, 635, 000	53, 827, 000
National Science Foundation	66, 547, 000	63, 445, 000
National Aeronautics and Space Administration	64, 100, 000	50, 300, 000
Special Action Office for Drug Abuse Prevention	51, 900, 000	3, 000, 000
District of Columbia Government	27, 290, 600	21, 231, 800
Department of Justice	12, 000, 000	10, 771, 295
Peace Corps	11, 000, 000	11, 000, 000
Canal Zone Government	6, 550, 000	7, 194, 000
Federal Trade Commission	1, 828, 400	1, 511, 340
Civil Service Commission	1, 282, 700	1, 232, 800
Attending Physician of Congress	119, 675	113, 740
Selective Service Advisory Committee	59, 000	59, 000
Total	28, 293, 689, 952	26, 519, 559, 999

Source: American Medical Association, Division of Public Affairs, Department of Governmental Relations.

Despite the magnitude of these expenditures, however, the Federal Government has not as yet succeeded in expressing any clear national policy toward health care for the American population.* This need to find an effective health care delivery system is universally conceded and is most evident in the many changes that are taking place in the medical and allied health professions regarding training, curricular development, new technologies, and a paramount concern with continuing education.

*Since this was written, the Health Maintenance Organization Act of 1973 was passed by Congress and signed into law by the President. This legislation is a major departure in how health care services are provided. In effect, HMO's provide for paid-in-advance, fixed-price, medical-hospital plans, possibly enrolling 10 million Americans in the next 5 years that will shift the burden of health care to preventive medicine and, hopefully, substantially reduce the costs of health care services.

Concern for health care delivery and manpower training as Federal priorities is of recent duration and only indirectly evident in much of the legislation prior to the 1960's. This interest is unfolding gradually. When the U.S. Public Health Service was established in 1912 by bringing together prior governmental activities in medical research, it was restricted almost exclusively to support of biomedical research, particularly in the area of communicable diseases, and to a very narrow interpretation of what constitutes "public health."

Biomedical Research

The Federal Government's recognition of its responsibilities in the health field up until the past decades remained consequently a highly circumscribed one and paralleled closely a similarly circumscribed view of the Government's responsibilities in the educational field. As with education, the major breakthrough

in Federal support for health evolved from an awareness of the need for more and better research, particularly in biomedicine.

The need for this research logically led Federal agencies to the universities and especially to their medical and graduate schools. In effect, medical schools became the focus and the beneficiaries of this Federal research dollar. Their biomedical research facilities and faculties expanded rapidly in response to Federal priorities, and often to the detriment of the other ongoing training and service responsibilities of the medical schools. As a result, the medical profession's commitment to the basic sciences as the foundation upon which it was developed was forcefully supported by Federal legislation.

At the Federal level, the National Institutes of Health within the Public Health Service soon became the operating center for these research interests, with a host of new categorical research institutes being formed to provide a frontal attack on the categorical diseases. This was no blanket attack against disease per se, however, but a carefully selected one, with heart disease, cancer, stroke, and kidney disorders heading a list of priorities to which others have been added periodically, and from which others have been excluded.

Categorical Approach

The "categorical" approach to disease prevention and control has characterized most Federal activity in the health field. This approach has been carried over into the health care field in such a way that only part and not the whole of the American population has been selected out to benefit from these health care activities. As in so many social welfare programs sponsored by the Federal Government, a national concern about the debilitating conditions of America's "poor" has been decisive, in many instances, in getting the Federal Government to act legislatively.

When loosely defined, the "poor" currently means only three broad segments of the American public: the young, the aged, and the disadvantaged, all of whom benefit from an assortment of Federal programs, but most substantially from the medicare and medicaid programs of the Social Security Act of 1965. To this list may be added a fourth category—veterans—whose health care benefits are derived from the single largest, most complex and sophisticated and truly systematic Government-supported health care program in the country—that of the Veterans Administration and its impressive network of medical and health care facilities.

To dwell on the categorical nature of disease research and clientele services is simply one way of highlighting the discriminate and noncomprehensive nature of present Federal health care programs. The consensus seems to be that we are witnessing a gradual but unstoppable movement toward some kind of national prepaid insurance plan that would reflect national policies, priorities, and practices. If this is indeed the case, then what we are witnessing is the culmination of effects that previous Federal legislation has had upon the evolution of such comprehensive coverage, and the steady insistence by even broader segments of the public that such coverage and services be made available, not simply as a need, but as a right.

In effect, past Federal legislation has increased the demands for improved health care without simultaneously helping to increase the health manpower and facilities needed to provide such care. Government emphasis on biomedical research and technological advancement has outpaced Government support of the other education, training, and patient care service of the health professions. By infusing billions of dollars into the health care market, Government actions have also advanced the ability of tens of millions of individuals to ask for and to pay for the kinds of medical treatment to which they had never before had access.

Federal support for medicine and allied health, and through them improved patient care, has been sporadic, disjointed, and often piecemeal and indecisive. The history of this support has been marked by an early insistence on research and technology, an intermediate and sometimes corollary emphasis on manpower shortages and hospital construction, and, as legislation in the post-1965 period suggests, a gradual recognition of the need to define more carefully and fully what constitutes "health care" and an effective "health care delivery system."

Public Health Training

Prior to 1965, direct Federal support for health professional education was designed primarily as public health training. This included nurse training grants (1941); advanced nurse traineeships, as well as graduate traineeships for physicians, engineers, nurses, and other health professionals in the public health area (1956); grants to programs in schools of public health (1958); and grants to nursing and engineering schools to provide graduate training in the public health field (1960).

The broadening of Federal support for health manpower programs was further reflected in the passage of the Health Professions Educational Assistance Act of 1963. The passage of this act was highly significant inasmuch as it was the first major support by the Federal Government of health professions education and helped to establish early the emphasis on continuing education as a rigorous and essential ingredient to improved patient care.

Medicare and Medicaid

Of unparalleled significance for a redefinition of the Federal attitude vis-à-vis patient care are titles XVIII and XIX (medicare and medicaid) of the Social Security Amendments of 1965. These two programs brought together a number of previous programs, and although the two programs are often confused in the minds of many, the fact is that the two programs differ substantially in legislative philosophy and administrative structure.

Both programs extend the traditional "pay for services" approach to health care. However, they do so with varying differences. First, only medicare is exclusively concerned with the provision of medical care (to individuals over 65), whereas in medicaid, recipients are free to determine their own priorities of need and to use their incomes accordingly.

Both medicare and medicaid operate essentially on the policy of income redistribution; in the case of the former, income from the young to benefit the old; and in the latter, income from the wealthy to aid the poor. Medicare requires cost-sharing by individual beneficiaries and is administered centrally at the national level by one agency—the Social Security Administration. Medicaid requires no cost-sharing and is administered by 52 State and territorial agencies, each of which is free to determine its definition of financial need.

In addition, medicare's financial coverage is limited, providing only partial coverage to its beneficiaries. Medicaid's coverage, on the other hand, may be comprehensive. Indeed, when the program was established, a goal was set for comprehensive coverage for all needy citizens by 1975.

In fiscal year 1972, more than 95 percent of all Americans over 65 were enrolled in medicare. It has been estimated that the Federal Government will pay 45 percent of all their expenses for health care for a total expenditure of $10.4 billion. Another 24 million low-income family members and others will receive the same kind of benefits through medicaid, with the Federal Government paying about 55 percent of the total cost for a total expenditure of $3.4 billion, with State and local governments paying the balance.

The effects upon the American health care system of numbers and sums of these dimensions can only be imagined. Certainly insufficient thought was given to how these two programs would actually change the health care system. In effect, these programs exacerbated an already overburdened health system by helping to create mounting consumer demands upon an increasingly more finite and less responsive health care system.

Science for Service

In that same year of 1965, however, the Congress enacted the regional medical programs in an effort to extend and apply the vast research findings that had earlier been made through NIH's complex of research institutes. The RMP's were consciously conceived as change agents in the American health care system and as a constructive way to translate the rich results of the decades of earlier emphasis on biomedical research. As part of this change agent role, a specific focus was given to the continuing education needs of individuals directly in the professions and of individuals who might be attracted to serve in them.

As the Council pointed out in its Sixth Annual Report, "A Question of Stewardship," these regional medical programs were tied closely to the medical and health-related activities of universities and other institutions and succeeded in establishing linkages among them (consortia) that could provide the research and service base for an improved health care delivery system. In this sense, at least, the RMP's were comparable to the original purposes of the land-grant concept: a deliberate effort to use knowledge for swift and effective application to the needs of individuals through the cooperation of Government agencies and academic institutions.

The growing concern for an adequate delivery system as a means to improve the quality of patient care received further impetus in the post-1965 period through two other important pieces of legislation, both concerned essentially with medical and health manpower shortages and continuing education needs, but each outlining clearly two separate thrusts of the Federal involvement in medical and health care development.

Health Manpower

First was the Allied Health Professions Act of 1966 with subsequent amendments in 1968. This legislation incorporated earlier Federal support for various health professions and then broadened that support significantly to include the dramatically increasing number of allied health professions. These latter professionals (subprofessionals and paraprofessionals included) were fast expanding in numbers and were becoming a major compensating factor for the shortages of people in the "selected" professions (those licensed to practice independently; i.e., physicians, nurses, dentists, etc.). These auxiliary professions had incidentally received Federal support in the past but such support was most usually channeled through medical centers or university-sponsored institutions and hospitals, where such funds could be—and were—reallocated to serve other medical priorities. In effect, this legislation helped to tighten the earmarking of Federal funds for the training and retraining of individuals in the allied health fields.

Reflecting the cautious movement away from a categorical approach to health care, the Comprehensive Health Manpower Act of 1971 provided two major departures from earlier legislative practices. First, capitation grants were established that would provide a certain amount of dollars to various institutions on the basis of each student enrolled. While thus providing regular operational support, the legislation went further, and, in the words of the American Medical Association, "marked the first time that there had been intervention by Federal agencies in the internal program decisions of the educational institutions."

Federal Priorities

According to the provisions of the capitation grants, Federal funds may not be released until institutions undertake projects in three of eight broad areas—and it is the articulation of these eight broad areas that helps outline the vague formulation of national manpower priorities for the health professions. Implicit in several of these provisions is a concern for continuing medical education. These same provisions, moreover, are expressed independently and more directly in other pieces of Federal legislation.

These areas include such activities as:

1. **Shortening the length of medical training.**
2. **Establishing interdisciplinary training and the use of the team approach to the provision of health services.**

   (Such training is more specifically authorized by the Public Health Services Act through HSMHA's hospital staff development grants, and through NIH's "Special Project" grants for interdisciplinary training programs.)
3. **Training new types of health personnel including physicians' assistants.**

   (This same priority is reflected in the mental health training grants. These grants are designed to support innovative and experimental projects, including continuing education activities, and to improve and expand the number of mental health professionals.)
4. **Offering innovative educational programs including those in the organization, provision, financing, or evaluation of health care.**

   (Many of the "Partnership for Health" programs authorized by the Public Service Act are similarly intended to develop new educational training programs, particularly the health services research and development grants.)
5. **Increasing the enrollment.**
6. **Increasing the enrollment of disadvantaged students.**
7. **Training primary-care health professionals.**

   (This activity is widespread throughout the Federal health agencies in programs that are generally intended to increase all health care personnel, as in NIH's health professions—special projects program.)
8. **Establishing programs in clinical pharmacology, drug use and abuse and in the science of nutrition.**

   (The Department of Agriculture's Cooperative Extension Service's nutrition program and HSMHA's community assistance grants for narcotic addiction and drug abuse support similar training programs.)

One immediate outgrowth of the Comprehensive Health Manpower Training Act was the innovation of Area Health Education Centers. Essentially these Centers were established to train health personnel at locations where health needs were the greatest. The Centers serve as a system that links health service organizations and educational institutions in ways that serve both the student and the surrounding community. University medical schools or other health units join with one or more hospitals some distance away to provide education and training in areas of serious health manpower shortages and to make available an assortment of new health care services.

As these eight categories imply, the availability and quality of health care are largely contingent upon an adequate supply of trained personnel, in substantial part through continuing education programs. As previously noted, no one has successfully determined how many people are actually engaged in providing health care, but the figure that is generally conceded approaches the level of 4 million. The core of this work force is, of course, the physician; but increasingly the actual provision of health care comes from individuals in the allied health professions.

(According to the "Health Manpower Source Book" of the Public Health Service, the term "allied health" manpower, when used broadly, "covers all those professional, technical, and supportive workers in the fields of patient care, public health, and health research who engage in activities that support, complement, or supplement the professional functions of physicians, dentists, and registered nurses; as well as personnel engaged in organized environmental health activities who are expected to have some expertise in environmental health.")

Allied Health

The allied health professions have been with us for a number of years, but the explosion of interest in them has been a more recent phenomenon. There are three overriding reasons for this growth: First, the increased demands for health care services by broader segments of the public who are covered by a variety of public and private insurance plans; second, the very limited supply of physicians—the traditional source of primary health care; and third, the fragmentation of the health care field into a number of specialized occupations, each having its own training program and health care responsibilities.

Unlike the physicians who are trained centrally in the Nation's 114 medical schools, allied health manpower comes from no central source and lacks both a conceptual and an institutional basis. Consequently, this manpower receives no core training, is under no central regulation, responds to no hierarchy of purpose or priority, and is certified by a still expanding number of highly independent professional and semiprofessionional associations. At latest count, no fewer than 22 such associations have approached the American Medical Association for accreditation of their activities.

If anything, the fragmentation of these professions reflects the fragmentation and specialization of the medical profession they were designed to serve. There are, according to some estimates, 26 categorical diseases. Each disease is a specialty that breaks out into subspecialties. The categorizations of these diseases, and the parts and systems of the anatomy they attack and disable, dicate substantially the curriculum to which a medical intern is exposed. The doctor is trained categorically, he practices categorically. The assistance he needs to further that practice is also largely categorical.

A paramount function of allied health professionals is to aid the physician in extending the benefits of health care. But the development of these allied health professionals reflects also the almost daily technological breakthroughs in science and medicine. As each breakthrough stimulates the creation of a new technology, each technology creates the demand for a new technician and dictates the outline of a new training program. These training programs may enhance the technician's grasp of his technology; they do not necessarily enhance his ability to work with the physician or with other health personnel.

The effects that these tendencies have upon health care are substantial and visible. The inability of a physician any longer to meet the health care needs of his patients simply means that he must apportion his responsibilities to others who have received training in the various specifics of the allied health professions. This necessity alone has been decisive in realining manpower for improved patient care and in rethinking the adequacies of the health care delivery mechanism.

Medical Management

The "team" approach to health care has obvious advantages, one being the more intelligent utilization of a physician's time and another the development of a better way to "manage" the delivery of health services.

The delegation of a physician's responsibilities to a supporting team, however, is done at the convenience of the physician and in accordance with his needs, and not necessarily in accordance with the needs of his patients. It can only be assumed that such a system does indeed lend itself to better patient care, just as we must assume—and only assume—that the emergence of continuing education programs for physicians is an indication of the ultimate improvement in a physician's care for his patient. However, a physician's self-image of himself and his educational needs may differ significantly from the image he may have among his patients. In all likelihood, his self-image is grounded in the intense basic-science orientation of his own professional training, and his belief that any further training should augment that orientation at the risk of obsolescence.

Patients rarely see their physicians in this light. What they are likely to see are individuals who hopefully are

more broadly concerned with the state of their general health, the health of their families, and even the health of their communities. There is a gap here which in theory could be bridged by a substantial change in current continuing education activities. In practice, the vast majority of continuing medical education programs are technologically oriented and reinforce the physician's self-image of himself and his profession.

Continuing Medical Education

Broadly speaking, the emerging continuing education programs are at least intended to bring about improvement in patient care. Recognition of a physician's voluntary participation in such programs is currently reflected in the expanding development of the AMA's physician's recognition award program, in which over 30,000 physicians have already participated. The AMA reports that this new program has helped to develop new criteria that permit the "recognition of more relevant types of continuing medical education, including self-learning methods and activities, teaching consultations, participation in patient care review activities, and self-assessment, as well as specialty board preparation."

In addition, six State medical associations (Oregon, Arizona, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Florida, and New Jersey) now or soon will require certain amounts of continuing medical education for maintenance of membership. Three States (Kansas, Maryland, and New Mexico) have developed permissive legislation for their boards of licensure to require minimum amounts of continuing medical education for reregistration of the license to practice.

In short, as a corollary to the linkage of Federal funds to certain Federal priorities, with an emphasis on continuing education and the improvement of patient care, an independent trend within the States and associations indicates that increasingly the certification process is being utilized to improve patient care through medical continuing education programs.

The physician's increasing dependence on allied health professionals in the delivery of health care has recharged professional interest in the recruitment, retention, and career-upgrading for individuals in these fields. Traditionally, allied health practitioners have been overwhelmingly female, which, in part, has helped to determine the low wages, low prestige, and the minimal career opportunities that have so often been attached to these occupations. Consequently, many of these same occupations have been inflicted with varying degrees of instability: There is unusually high turnover in some fields; others have many more individuals trained in them than actually practice them; there is limited lateral entry from one field to the next; and, for many individuals, the only way to achieve their long-term career objectives is to overcome, somehow, their immediate employment restrictions.

Part of this is attributable to the kinds of people who are selected to train other people. Just as physicians are primarily responsible for the training of other physicians, and nurses of other nurses, so too are technicians for other technicians. Radiologists train other radiologists and physical therapists train other physical therapists. Unless one wants to spend his entire life as a physical therapist, there are limitations inherent in this training syndrome that prevent personal growth, manpower expansion, and effective communication among those who are intended to work eventually as a team.

Educational Expenses

Allied health training is widespread and uncoordinated. In the past, such training has more usually taken place in a clinical setting; that is, a hospital or related health facility. In the process of training these individuals, such clinical facilities have generally turned to these individuals as a major institutional resource and have utilized them accordingly. This "educational" activity of the hospital continues to be a major and increasingly undesirable expense—one for which the patient himself invariably ends up paying.

Because of the nature of training for the allied health fields—there is both a clinical and a teaching aspect to it—other institutions have become substantially involved in the preparation of manpower for these professions. There is a listing of over 3,000 separate and overwhelmingly technical courses in the allied health professions currently being offered by 2- and 4-year colleges. The most notable increase is evident at the 2-year college level, where there has been a substantial increase in the courses provided and the students enrolled.

In all likelihood, however, the variety of courses offered at the 2-year level are limited and are designed specifically to respond to local needs. At the 4-year and university level, however, the variety increases. At this level, courses are more likely to be integrated and demonstrate a more sophisticated and planned approach to meeting manpower needs.

Because there is a clinical aspect to this training, and because clinical training is more expensive than didac-

tic training (in that it involves equipment, laboratories, and facilities), many educational institutions are similarly reluctant to absorb the entire expense of training and retraining allied health professionals. One alternative is clear: the teaching institutions and the clinical institutions are finding it economically sound to establish consortia for the purposes of meeting the manpower needs in allied health.

These consortia are evident at all levels of training and have broad significance for the gradual evolution of the health care delivery system itself. This system is evolving in response to several factors, some financial, some institutional, some professional and others legislative and social. The combination of these factors, and the depths to which they are reaching in health care institutions, are beginning to make apparent the broad outline of the kind of mechanism that is evolving and the increasingly vital role ascribed to continuing education.

Hospital Services

Institutionally, the role of the hospital, especially the teaching hospital, remains central. The teaching hospital remains the focus of both medical education and medical care. Insofar as medical education is soundly based in the sciences and medical research, there is being added to this base a complex of other functions which, in effect, link this research base more directly with external service. Among these other functions, according to the Carnegie Commission, in addition to training, are: Research in the health care delivery system; advice to local hospitals and health authorities; liaison with community colleges and comprehensive colleges for the training of allied health personnel; and widespread sponsorship of continuing education activities for health professionals.

The Carnegie Commission refers to this combination of activities at the medical school/hospital as simply the "health care delivery" model of external service. A second model they refer to as the "integrated science" model, wherein all of the basic science and social science instruction is carried on within the main campus and not duplicated in the medical school, which provides mainly clinical instruction.

It is the first model, however, that has most immediate impact on the quality of patient care being delivered, since it more clearly than the second model is organized for external service. This service is externalized in a number of ways. First, there is the widening use and support of community-based hospitals.

Community Hospitals

These community hospitals coexist with the communities they serve and are generally more directly responsive to community needs. In addition, these same hospitals increasingly serve the medical profession as the sites at which internship and residency requirements are met. They are also a major site for medical continuing education programs. If they serve no other valuable purpose, community hospitals help to alert growing numbers of the profession to the complexity of health problems at the local level. In effect, these hospitals are increasingly serving as sites to expand a physician's training beyond his rigidly scientific curricula to include nonscientific and nontechnological areas that are essential to understanding the full dimensions of local health care needs.

These hospitals, as well as the more research-oriented medical centers, are concurrently showing more interest in preventive and ambulatory care. To that degree, at least, they are also becoming somewhat less confined to their earlier absorption with acute illness. This trend, along with others, also indicates a general shift away from the tendency to treat the categorical diseases in isolation from each other, and toward a fuller medical response to the patient as "person" rather than to the patient as "illness."

Service-Oriented Medicine

Still another modification of medical specialization is the growth of group practice as an alternative to independent practice. The broader the group of medical personnel, the broader the kinds and frequency of services available. This combination, then, of group medical practice, community hospitals, neighborhood health clinics, regional medical programs, utilization of allied health personnel, especially the retraining of nurses and physicians' assistants as para-medics, and the insistence on continuing education at all levels of health care service, all point in one direction: the appearance of a network of service-oriented satellites to extend improved medical care to the general public, and to distribute more equitably to all the benefits of health care.

The role the Federal Government exercises in these trends is a broadly expanding one but nonetheless a restricted one. The medical and allied health professions are, after all, a very active part of the American private sector. Their activities are often as characteristically competitive, duplicative, voluntary, and as pluralistic as most other enterprises in the private

sector. Indeed, profit is as much a motivating factor for these professions as it is with most other commercial enterprises. If Federal legislation is to move in the direction of increasing public health measures or providing comprehensive medical care, it must do so without seeming to nationalize the medical profession or impinge upon the independent practice of the nation's physicians. Some Federal action is regulatory and designed to protect the American consumer; for example, the Food and Drug Administration, the Environmental Protection Agency, and even the Federal Trade Commission (which regulates such things as insurance advertisements). Other Federal action involves program support and public assistance: the Hill-Burton Act (hospital construction), the Comprehensive Health Manpower Training Act (manpower development), the Public Health Service Act (institutional research and community health services) and the Social Security Act (direct and indirect payments for medical coverage).

Federal Action Dispersed

The agencies that administer these programs, the purposes these programs serve, the clientele which are intended to benefit from them, and the institutions which are expected to cooperate in implementing these programs, lack a central focus. No single, clear, and national objective is designed to be achieved through them. Nor, perhaps, should there be. But the failure as yet to pull together more coherently the Government's ongoing categorical research programs, its support of community, private, and environmental health needs, its diverse manpower programs and institutional support programs, makes unlikely any final and effective assessment of the programs themselves.

What is very much evident in Federal activity today is the variety of experimentation that is going on in improving health care and the health care system. The frequency with which changes take place in technological developments, medical discoveries, and manpower needs might suggest to some that this experimentation is simply a reflection of the constant state of flux affecting the health care field. Assuming that the frequency of change persists, it may be some time before dependable health care models, worthy of application and replication, are hit upon and receive a consensus of support.

At the same time, the trends toward new models of patient care and an improved health care delivery system do exist. In most of these trends, the Federal Government is a vigorous partner; in virtually all these trends, the Federal presence pervades. There is not one medical faculty position in the country that does not depend directly or indirectly upon Federal support. There is not one medical school that could function as it now does without at least the present level of Federal support. There are few major medical discoveries of the recent past that have occurred without that same Federal support.

Health Care Trends

These trends in health care and health care delivery and their implications for extension and continuing medical and health education appear to be as follows:

- There remains an implicit trust in the need for Federal support for biomedical research. However, the need to transmit that research to its ultimate users and beneficiaries is reflected in Federal experimentation with regional medical programs, neighborhood health clinics, and area health education centers, all of which involve substantial continuing education activities.
- Early Federal support of graduate medical facilities and their research capacities has broadened to include allied health schools, schools of nursing, and social work, and has been broadened even further to include support now of undergraduate and 2-year institutional programs. In effect, this maximizes the institutional base for continuing education programs.
- Similarly, there is a growing recognition that Federal support primarily for training of people in the selected professions is insufficient and must be supplemented by at least a minimal level of support for individuals in the allied health professions, many of whom depend on continuing education for their upward mobility.
- Early emphasis on the categorical diseases, although ongoing, is now being amplified by support of training in nonscientific and nontechnological fields, particularly in engineering, management, and the social sciences, which have direct bearings on aspects of public health. The combination of interdisciplinary needs and public service may help to broaden and externalize the universities' support of this emphasis.
- As Federal financial support for medical and health institutions reaches the level of general institutional support through capitation grants, the

full education activities of those institutions, including teaching, training, continuing education, and public service, may benefit more substantially from Federal support.

- Dramatic changes have taken place in the identification of individuals who are eligible to benefit from Federal health care legislation. Early earmarking of Federal funds for such discrete groups as veterans, Indians, the aged, the young, and the disadvantaged reflects an increasing sense of responsibility to expanding segments of the American population. As the responsibility enlarges, the capacity of millions to demand more and better health care strains the health manpower base and makes it essential that this base too be enlarged, both through traditional undergraduate and graduate programs and through extensive continuing education activities.
- Early support of large urban and suburban research and teaching hospitals designed to accommodate the acutely ill has now broadened to include support of community hospitals and other local health facilities that will extend health care to more individuals in more critical geographic areas. The redistribution of facilities, manpower, and resources in response to client needs also requires a realinement of educational services to meet these needs.
- Similarly, health facilities are placing more emphasis on preventive medicine and ambulatory care as opposed to acute illness and bedridden patients.
- Although the physician's role in health care and health care delivery remains central, increasingly his responsibilities are being shared by paramedics and personnel supplied by the allied health professions. As the responsibilities of these personnel expand, their educational needs expand with them.
- And finally, the regrouping of health manpower to work effectively as a team is providing the core for a new system of management of medical services within the hospitals and health facilities; just as the regrouping of a variety of supplemental health facilities around central hospital and medical school complexes is providing improved management practices in the distribution of services beyond these central facilities. □

RECOMMENDATIONS

We recommend that the Federal Government support and encourage teaching institutions to design and implement continuing education programs that enhance the physician's understanding of the special health care needs of the poor.

We recommend that the Allied Health Professions Personnel Training Act and the regional health program be reauthorized to help maintain and raise the standards of practice of those in the allied health fields.

We recognize the special health care needs of the aging and recommend increased Federal support for the training of geriatric psychiatrists and counselors, mental institution staffs, nursing home staffs, and the personnel of other institutions that routinely provide care for the aging.

FEDERAL SUPPORT FOR THE CONTINUING EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

In mid-1973, under the direction of the President, with coordination provided by the Office of Management and Budget, all of the major Federal agencies were asked to undertake a "management by objectives" exercise and to submit to the President a list of program priorities that each agency hoped to achieve. A total of 19 of 21 agencies responded, with only the Departments of State and Defense delaying responses until their newly appointed Secretaries could help determine what their departmental priorities would be.

Federal Objectives

Of the 144 priorities submitted, all received the personal endorsement of the President. Of these 144 priorities, only one addressed itself specifically to education: "to develop options for restructuring Federal aid to college and university students." (A survey and analysis of these priorities appeared in the Government Research Corporation's "National Journal Reports," Nov. 17, 1973, vol. 5, No. 46.)

This "management by objectives" exercise thus confirms what has already become apparent to many in the educational community—that the salad days of substantial Federal support for educational institutions, programs, and personnel are over, and that a new era of diminished Federal interest in education has begun.

This diminished interest in funding educational programs has been most tangibly felt by institutions of higher education, with many research, fellowship, and other categorical aid programs involving institutions of higher education being sharply curtailed or terminated altogether. Much of the remaining Federal interest in education, as exemplified by the activities of the Office of Education, is focused on support to elementary and secondary school systems.

There are many reasons to explain this diminished interest, but the three most commonly heard reasons are: (1) The leveling of student enrollments; (2) the overproduction of teachers for all levels of education; and (3) the general inclination of the administration to control its budget and reduce the continued escalation of costs in most program areas. The training and retraining of teachers have been particularly affected by these circumstances.

Past Funding

In the past, Federal support for the teaching and related professions came primarily from categorical legislation which was research-oriented, subject-matter related, and of relatively long-term duration. A significant amount of this support was generated by the National Foundation Act of 1950; the National Defense Education Act of 1958, and subsequent amendments; the Higher Education Act of 1965, and subsequent amendments; and the Education Professions Development Act of 1967, an amendment to the Higher Education Act.

The full force of these legislative activities is now abated, with most of the original programs supported by them either substantially altered or defunct, especially the teacher-training activities formerly administered by the Bureau of Education Personnel Development of the Office of Education. The era of educational manpower growth which they once represented has now given way to an era of retrenchment; and what was once a popular emphasis on the rapid expansion of the teaching profession has, in the best of instances, resolved itself into a "holding pattern" regarding any further major Federal contribution in this field.

Federal support for the teaching profession never reached the magnitude nor sustained the continuity that many observers within the educational community would have welcomed. If there is a philosophical basis to the oftentimes abrupt nature of congressional reac-

tion to educational needs, it is this: the Federal Government must do for the people what the people and their locally elected legislatures cannot do for themselves. Federal investment in the teaching and related professions, consequently, has often been described as a "stopgap" action, with limited (i.e., categorical) legislation enacted to achieve limited and short-term goals.

To the extent that Federal teacher-training moneys continue to provide support, this attitude still prevails. Federal funds to train critically needed teachers for the handicapped, for migrant children and for Indians, for instance, are still available in significant sums. The Vocational Education Act continues to supply teacher-training support to prepare teachers for the expanding career-oriented education market. Teachers for low-income, disadvantaged groups are supported through a variety of sources, but especially through the Elementary and Secondary Act and the Teacher Corps, one of the most congressionally popular of all of the activities originally generated by the Higher Education Act of 1965 and later sustained by the Education Professions Development Act.

In other words, the categorical approach to teacher-training support is still one of the most employed avenues of Federal involvement in continuing education at the postsecondary level. Despite the visible disinclination of the Congress and the administration to fund teacher training activities at their earlier high level, both the Congress and the administration still respond to the special training needs of special individuals, but on a much reduced and more discriminating basis.

Quality and Competency

Considering this reduction, and the fact that, in large part, the manpower needs of the teaching profession have been met in terms of quantity, past and new Federal efforts to increase the quality of the profession are receiving new interest. This interest is most evident at the elementary and secondary levels, where pilot and demonstration projects sponsored by both the Office of Education and the recently authorized National Institute of Education are exploring new methods to evaluate the actual competencies of teachers in the classroom.

Competency-based teacher training programs are being developed both within and without the Federal Government. The questions of what constitutes a good teacher, how a good teacher is best trained, what measurements are most accurate in evaluating a teacher's performance, what impact a teacher actually has on a student, and how one measures a student's performance and response to a classroom teacher are perennial questions, certainly; but now, through expanding Federal support, more deliberate efforts are being made to answer these questions and, hopefully, package the answers so that they can be replicated in school systems throughout the country.

This heightened interest in competency-based teaching comes at a time when there has been a dramatic change in the composition of the teaching profession itself, especially at the lower levels. For the first time in decades, the National Education Association reports, the profession has stabilized. There are proportionately fewer people entering the profession, and proportionately fewer people retiring from the profession, than in the recent past. The bulk of the profession is now composed of individuals whose ages extend from the late twenties to the midforties.

These are individuals, consequently, who have been in the profession for a number of years, who are well beyond the preparatory and licensing stage, and whose educational needs are at relatively high professional levels.

Inservice Training

In fact, Federal support for preservice training is now largely a matter of hisory. It has been displaced by an emphasis on inservice training. Even the Teacher Corps, which was initially designed to attract new individuals to the profession to teach in the inner-city schools, will be altered through proposed legislation to concentrate on experienced teachers, with specific attention given to their inservice educational needs.

These inservice activities may take a variety of forms: Formal courses at a college, short-courses, institutes, symposia, discussion groups, or special activities sponsored by professional associations, or by the school systems themselves. Several estimates indicate that the majority of these activities are nondegree and noncredit oriented.

A major advantage of inservice training activities is that whatever these activities may be, they can be immediately applied by experienced teachers to the actual problems of teaching in a classroom. Inservice training programs for experienced teachers are, in essence, practicums. Preservice training, in contrast, tends to be highly theoretical in nature, with interns isolated from actual classroom situations and preconditioned to anticipate problems which may not exist.

Rising Demands

No matter how experienced a teacher is, there is substantial evidence to indicate that his need for continuing education is one of his paramount concerns. As recently as 1970–71, for instance, 61 percent of the Nation's 2,062,000 teachers reported having taken some type of college work during the previous 3 years, often as a prerequisite to professional advancement and salary incrementation; 79 percent of these participated in educational activities sponsored by school systems, and 25 percent in activities sponsored by professional associations.

Although the proposed revisions for the Teacher Corps give a significantly central role to teacher reeducation through inservice programs, many other federally sponsored activities currently give a less central role to it. Much of this latter activity is in the form of "seed" money generated either directly by Federal agencies or indirectly via State grant formulas to initiate an innovative or experimental teacher-training program. As a corollary to this Federal input, many of these same programs are intensifying their efforts to involve universities in teacher-training programs at earlier stages in the program's development and for longer periods of time.

This involvement is most welcome in the form of an increased commitment of university resources to the ongoing responsibility of training teachers for the local schools. This institutional involvement has been expanded recently to include the active participation of the local communities being served by the school systems. Many Federal programs require this tri-institutional base (community-school-university) for teacher training; other programs either strongly encourage it or give preference in the grant-making process to those applications which make allowances for it.

This is not an unusual development. The teaching profession is, after all, the largest single profession in the country. Tax revenues are used to support the teaching profession. The local communities which pay these taxes, and which are immediately served by the teachers in the community schools, are increasingly demanding some voice in how these schools are operated and more demonstrated proof of the quality of the teachers employed by them.

Accountability

"Accountability" has now come to the teaching profession. As already indicated, it comes at a time when the teaching profession, school administrators, and Federal and State agencies are seeking new ways to evaluate teaching competency. Accountability can be controversial. It has proved to be controversial in many school districts which have come more directly under local citizen control, where a public issue has been made of the appropriateness of the tenure system, and where such related issues as professional unionization and licensing standards have emerged.

The impetus to narrow the gap between local schools and local communities, and which thus further accelerates public demands for educational accountability, has in part been generated by Federal programs. The emphasis that many Federal teacher-training programs has placed on attracting paraprofessionals into the field, and on recruiting local citizens to teach in local schools, is one reflection of this effort to relate the schools more realistically to the communities. The career opportunities program, for instance, sought to recruit and train Vietnam veterans for the local schools. Similarly, several of the remaining programs initiated by the Education Professions Development Act encourage the use of paraprofessionals as teaching aides.

As is true of so many Federal grant programs of the past two decades, the presence of the Federal Government in areas where it previously may have had minimal direct involvement comes as a result of using Federal dollars and programs as change agents in American society. The efforts by Federal agencies to encourage greater cooperation among academic institutions, local communities, and the school systems, therefore, may simply becloud the fact that the Federal Government itself has moved much closer to local issues and local institutions than ever before.

Education as Change Agent

Many of the teacher training programs were intended directly or indirectly to help bring about change, whether that change be instructional, in the form of the National Science Foundation's impact on the teaching of science and mathematics; institutional, via Federal efforts to encourage institutions of higher education to work more closely with local school systems; or societal, as represented by the recognition of the American educational system as presumably the surest route to providing economic and social parity to disadvantaged groups.

Federal dollars have been crucial in expanding educational opportunities for virtually everyone. They have been crucial in increasing and improving established institutions and in supporting the development of new institutions. The texture of student enrollment

has changed substantially, at all levels of instruction, largely as a result of Federal initiative. And so too, the American teacher has seen his numbers increase and his responsibilities expand, often as a consequence of Federal programs.

But in light of these Federal objectives, the teacher's role as change agent has not always been clearly outlined. Increasing the numbers of teachers in the schools is not necessarily the best way of responding to the changes brought about by such issues as racial balance in the schools that the Federal Government itself has helped to introduce. The teacher's role is multifunctional: he is instructor, administrator, and counselor; he is vital to curricular revision and instructional reform. He shares a central responsibility in responding to the new demands of both community and parents alike.

What are the real needs of the teacher? What federally supported programs help to provide him with the kind of thoughtful instruction and professional assistance he needs in order to respond more credibly to the changes in the classroom, in the school and school system, and among students, parents, and local communities? Who are those who know best how to change institutions and the teaching profession, and how are these people used to help train teachers to bring about such change?

Career-Long Needs

Largely as a result of changing patterns of student cultural, environmental and behavioral conduct, and the evolving position of the school system within the community, the scope of a teacher's repsonsibilities has expanded significantly in recent years. Not only have they expanded, but the growing manpower stability of the teaching profession itself also has helped to give focus to the career-long educational needs of the teaching profession.

The enabling legislation of the Education Professions Development Act, which represents the Federal Government's major thrust in responding to teacher-training needs, originally recognized the existence of these career-long objectives and even authorized the funding of programs to help identify and meet these needs. Such programs, however, were never implemented. Funds were used instead to meet the legitimate teacher-training needs in other areas, particularly in career education; categorical programs for teachers of bilingual, Indian, migrant, and disadvantaged students; and teaching needs for exceptional children, vocational education, and new careers.

(It should also be noted that whereas these programs were once administered at bureau level by the Bureau of Education Personnel Development, these same programs have been reduced to divisional status and are now administered by the Division of Educational Systems Development.)

Summary

The reduction in status of the teacher-training programs of the Office of Education is emblematic of the diminished interest by the Federal Government in education programs in general. What "educational" programs are funded by Federal agencies are intended basically to meet the noneducational needs of these agencies for subject-matter specialists. The one remaining area that continues to receive intense Federal interest is the question of how best to distribute Federal educational moneys in the form of loans and grants to individuals.

The rationale for this reduction of interest in teacher-training efforts is due primarily to the leveling of student enrollments in the schools and the consequential decrease of attempts to attract individuals into the teaching profession. The profession itself is now reasonably stabilized. Numerical growth in the profession has been curtailed, with fewer people proportionately entering and retiring from the profession than in the past.

Because the teaching profession continues to play such a dominant role in American society, however, the quality of the individuals in the profession continues to receive serious review. Federal and non-Federal interest in competency-based training programs and programs of evaluation are receiving noticeable interest, with the view in mind that teachers stand much more accountable than before for their performance in the classroom.

These pressures for accountability are not only emanating from professional associations, State agencies, the schools, and teachers themselves, but as a consequence of the expanding direct involvement of the teachers and schools in the affairs of the communities they serve, and vice versa. Federal programs are doing much to strengthen and fortify the school-community relationship and are helping each to establish more fruitful and long-term contacts with institutions of higher education.

Academic institutions as change agents in American society, and teachers as key elements to implementing that change, have been recognizable priorities within many Federal programs. Needed changes within these institutions and within the teaching profession them-

selves, however, have not received in terms of magnitude and continuity the same kind of Federal support.

The Federal approach to the teaching profession and its demonstrated instructional needs has been piecemeal and fragmented. Federal programs, operating through a variety of categorical aid programs, have been legislated and administered on a short-term, ad-hoc basis, with only limited national objectives being met when it was thought they could not be met sufficiently by State and local jurisdictions.

However trained, and with whatever support, the teaching profession now largely has the numbers and kinds of teachers in place to meet the general needs of the educational system. Some exceptions, however, are evident. Properly trained and licensed teachers for vocational education, for the handicapped, for adult education for certain segments of the disadvantaged population, and for the still expanding network of 2-year community and junior colleges, are still being recruited from the general public or retrained from within the teaching profession.

Recognizing the relative stability of the profession, Federal and non-Federal interest in inservice programs is increasing. Pilot and demonstration projects to aid the continuing education needs of the experienced teacher are being funded, with special emphasis on those needs reflected in the legislation now being proposed to alter and revitalize the Teacher Corps.

Teaching as a lifelong profession, however, and continuing education as a career-long need, are not Federal priorities. The interest that has been expressed in the quality of the teaching profession, and in the forms of instruction and evaluation which will help maintain the competency of teachers, has not yet been translated into the kinds of long-term Federal support that will mark as "done" what must now stand as "work incomplete." □

RECOMMENDATIONS

We recommend that the Federal commitment to inservice continuing education for experienced teachers be increased and strengthened and that immediate attention be given to the development and dissemination of improved teacher evaluation techniques.

We recommend that teacher-training institutions promote inservice training opportunities at such community-based locations as day care centers, public assistance and family welfare agencies, correctional institutions, and other local agencies; and that these same institutions broaden their programs to include the participation by community leaders in the training of teachers.

We recommend that Federal support encourage the transmittal of relevant research from major research universities to teacher-training institutions through appropriate continuing education and extension services.

CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORKERS: THE THREAT OF PROFESSIONAL DISINTEGRATION

In our Sixth and Seventh Annual Reports, we noted that a disproportionately high number of federally supported extension and continuing education activities focused on social action and were conceived and implemented in the 1960's. These programs were directed toward resolving a broad range of social ills. In support of these programs, the Congress subsequently authorized a variety of efforts to recruit and train the professional manpower needed to operate them effectively.

Much of the manpower serving in such areas as child and family welfare, mental retardation, public assistance, poverty, housing, community development, and health maintenance is referred to under the term "social workers." This was then and remains now an arbitrary and inaccurate appellation. It fails to take into account the fact that social work itself has been for decades a self-contained discipline, producing its own professional manpower, trained by over 80 professional schools of social work, and subject to independent accreditation and credentialing. As a practical matter, most of the persons serving in these new social programs were not "social workers" in the traditional and precise sense of the term. Social work, as defined officially by the National Association of Social Work in 1970, is as follows:

"Social work is the professional activity of helping individuals, groups, or communities enhance or restore their capacity for social functioning and creating societal conditions favorable to this goal. Social work practice consists of the professional application of social work values, principles, and techniques to one or more of the following ends: Helping people obtain tangible services; counseling and psychotherapy with individuals, families and groups; helping communities or groups provide or improve social and health services; and participating in relevant legislative processes. The practice of social work requires knowledge of human development and behavior; of social, economic, and cultural institutions, and of the interaction of all these factors."

These are broad responsibilities that require a broad manpower base, broadly trained. According to the Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics, there are currently 185,000 professionally trained social workers. Until 1970, an individual was considered to be a professional social worker only if he or she had graduated from a 2-year graduate program in social work. In 1970, the Council on Social Work Education, the accrediting arm of the profession, extended its membership to include graduates of undergraduate social work programs, thus in effect making the baccalaureate the first practice degree of the profession.

Social Work Manpower

There are 86 professional schools of social work in the country. There are now nearly 200 approved undergraduate programs, and an increasing number of social work training activities have been started at the 2-year community college level. The professional schools currently enroll 15,600 full-time and 1,900 part-time graduate students. Approximately 22,000 students participate in undergraduate social work programs. To train these individuals, there are about 2,300 full-time and 900 part-time graduate faculty members, and over 500 faculty members employed at the undergraduate level.

This is the extent of the professional manpower base for the profession. The areas of responsibility that were once essentially the private domain of professional social workers, however, have broadened substantially in recent years. This expansion can be directly attributable to the activities of Congress and the Federal

agencies in such areas as health services, community development, and individual public assistance programs. Because of these activities, the existing manpower resources have been strained and substantial numbers of other professionals and paraprofessionals have been recruited into activities which might ordinarily have been the sole responsibility of professional social workers.

In programs such as family assistance, child welfare, and health service, social workers generally predominate and have leadership visibility. In most other welfare agencies, social workers may be minimally represented; and in other agencies, like the early activities of the Office of Economic Opportunity, they may not be at all influential.

Because of their affiliation with the impoverished and disadvantaged, social workers themselves are often assumed to represent disproportionately among their own ranks impoverished and disadvantaged groups. In fact, over 90 percent of social workers are white and middle class. Only 6.9 percent of social workers, for instance, are black. Social work has also been assumed to be primarily a female occupation. In fact, nearly 40 percent of social workers are male, with that percentage steadily increasing as the status, salary, and career opportunities for social workers expand.

Social workers are not inexperienced do-gooders, but highly trained professionals, usually with graduate degrees, who, as acknowledged experts of welfare systems and bureaucratic structures, frequently administer vast networks of public welfare and assistance programs.

Through the casework method, social workers have maintained a credible grassroots visibility with individuals and families, providing them with vital public assistance, services, and information. Moreover, social workers are committed not only to helping individuals and families respond positively to social environments, but to helping restructure community institutions in such ways as to make that response possible.

The obligations that social workers have accepted among individuals and communities, and the increasing responsibilities they have been asked to share by Federal, State, and other programs, have been limited by the ability of the profession to deploy the manpower needed in terms of numbers and training.

Major Challenge

This combination of: (1) A professional manpower base which is inadequate to respond to current and expanding responsibilities; and (2) a professional manpower base whose responsibilities are being assumed by nonprofessionals and paraprofessionals, represents the major educational and training need for social workers and for those new entrants whose activities now extend to social work.

To these needs may be added a third. In a recent survey conducted by the National Association of Social Workers, the major professional association for the field, nearly 60 percent of the more than 25,000 members who responded to the survey indicated that they had been actively engaged in social work for more than 10 years. Twenty-eight percent indicated that they had been professionally active in social work for 20 years or longer.

This same survey showed that 85 percent of association members had participated in continuing education courses. Three-quarters of these did so within the past 3 years. Over 70 percent of these continuing education courses were conducted by either graduate schools of social work or professional associations. In addition, "continuing education" ranked first among all professional needs as identified by survey participants, with "professional standards" ranked second.

In respect to this dual concern by association members, social work is essentially no different from other professions which, in recent years, have experienced significant technical advancement, changing responsibilities, and increased pressures toward accountability. Because social workers are in a pivotal position to aid in community development, they have been particularly affected by Federal and State programs that seek to aid individuals and communities with improved public services.

Social workers are intimately involved with two types of service programs, one relating to community development and the other relating to health services, and each requiring varying degrees of professional training. Although these services have long been provided independently of Federal support, the social work profession has responded strongly to Federal initiative in these areas within the past two decades.

Federal Support

Federal support for social work development has emanated almost exclusively from a single agency—the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Within this Department, the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) and the Social and Rehabilitation Services (SRS) have for years provided the bulk of that support. The Office of Education has not been involved in developing programs specifically designed for social workers.

In fiscal year 1973, NIMH and SRS provided approximately $24 million to social work training and development, with special Federal interest focused on maternal and child welfare, the aging, mental retardation, and (to a lesser extent) on corrections and drug and alcohol abuse. In addition, both Veterans Administration and the military departments have trained and employed social workers in significant numbers and have had major impact on how graduate schools of social work respond to Federal initiative.

(In fiscal year 1974, fund impoundments, program termination, administrative reorganization, and regionalization efforts substantially impeded manpower development in social work.)

The ability of some social work programs to remain closely identified with health care services, however, has enabled them to maintain their funding and establish a relatively high visibility within the bureaucracy. This has certainly been the case with the social work training programs sponsored by the National Institute of Mental Health and Veterans Administration. In both instances, social workers are recognized as key participants in the health care delivery system, and social work itself is accepted as one of the four "core" disciplines, along with psychiatry, psychology, and nursing, in the maintenance of mental health.

NIMH

The single largest Federal program in support of social work training is operated within NIMH's Social Work Training Branch of the Division of Manpower and Training Programs. In fiscal year 1973, $13.3 million was spent on training of social workers at the masters and doctoral level, with primary emphasis given to the training of psychiatric social workers. In addition, NIMH's Continuing Education Branch spent approximately $4.1 million for continuing education grants to institutions of higher education. Few of the recipients of these grants have been social work schools, and no grants have gone to continuing education divisions of academic institutions, although such divisions are eligible for funding.

The Public Health Service's Bureau of Community Health Services also provides support to social workers. In fiscal year 1974, nearly $15 million was spent in the area of training for maternal and child health. Social workers are only one of a number of professionals elegible to receive support via this institutional grant program. Although no school of social work actually was a recipient of these funds, schools of social work did participate in virtually all of the interdisciplinary activities carried out under this program.

The thrust of the maternal and child health program was mental retardation of children. Of the 414 individuals trained under this program in fiscal year 1974, 126 were social workers. The program was intended primarily for full-time studies at the graduate level.

A final major source of social work support is Veterans Administration, which itself employs over 2,200 social workers in its hospitals and health-related facilities. VA has formal affiliation with every school of social work in the country, and maintains close contact with them regarding training programs and curriculum development.

Veterans Administration

VA has essentially two ways to provide continuing education opportunities to social workers. VA staff is free at any time to avail itself of training opportunities at any of the many VA-related health and training facilities. This is largely an informal exercise, not easily categorized, that occurs at every level of employment. In addition, VA sponsors training programs for its social work staff at institutions other than those affiliated with or directly related to VA. In fiscal year 1972, approximately 600 social workers, who represent 25 percent of the social work staff employed by VA, engaged in inservice training activities. The staff and their training are closely related to health care fields, as is the training encouraged by the Public Health Service and the National Institute of Mental Health.

Somewhat related to VA are the training activities of the military departments. The Department of the Army, for instance, currently employs about 315 social workers to provide health services to military personnel and their families. Similarly, the Air Force has begun to increase its social work manpower, which now numbers about 115.

Other periodic sources of training support for social workers have been the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, the National Institute on Drug Abuse, both in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Department of Justice's National Institute on Corrections.

Federal Retrenchment

We are now obviously in a period of significant retrenchment in federally supported continuing education programs for social workers. Similarly, many of the social welfare and public assistance programs that have characterized Federal activity in the past decade have been terminated, reorganized, decentralized, or greatly changed in thrust. These two policies, in com-

bination, have created a lessened Federal involvement in continuing education for social work.

Even in the area of health maintenance, the future of social work support is unclear. This uncertainty occurs at a time when the Federal Government is making major efforts to extend the benefits of health care to every American. Despite the fact that social work activity is central to many health care programs, Federal support for it has been considerably reduced.

The recent enactment of the Health Maintenance Organization (HMO) has broad implications for social workers. Social workers have long been active in health maintenance and have provided essential services which are not only recognized by the HMO legislation but which are required by the legislation in local health maintenance facilities.

Public Health Service hospitals, VA hospitals, and federally supported nursing homes also require social work participation in the administration of health care services. Increasingly, insurance companies provide for social services. In a most recent instance, the Joint Committee on the Accreditation of Hospitals of the American Hospital Association has established as a standard that every participating hospital must now plan to provide social services to individuals under the direct care and supervision of trained social workers.

A continued emphasis on continuing education is essential if the quality of professional social services is to be maintained. Professional social workers need to be upgraded; nonprofessionals and paraprofessionals need better training to work successfully in the social field; and those social workers whose current employment opportunities have been reduced as a result of program cutbacks need to be retained and utilized elsewhere.

Professional Priority

Of the 86 graduate schools of social work, as many as 60 of them have instituted formal continuing education programs for the profession. In addition, the Council on Social Work Education has set up the Academy of Certified Social Workers to provide professional recognition to advanced training and continuing education activities by members of the profession. Further, the National Association of Social Workers has designated continuing education as an emerging area of priority professional concern. In short, the structure to deliver continuing education exists and the interest and need are high, at a time when funding cutbacks limit the amount of continuing education which can be provided.

Throughout this discussion, we have concentrated upon the needs of professional social workers. We have not concentrated on the field of social work itself and the indeterminable number of individuals who provide valuable and positive assistance in the area of social services. We recognize that effective social services will depend greatly on the quality of individuals who help to provide these services but who are not themselves social workers.

The relationship that professional social workers develop with these other professionals and paraprofessionals is an important adjunct to our review of Federal training programs. Perhaps a paramount concern for those who are charged with developing continuing education programs for social workers should be precisely this: how to relate better the continuing education opportunities available to social workers to the fact that the responsibilities social workers have are responsibilities shared with a host of other individuals not necessarily exposed to the values and principles of traditional social work training. □

RECOMMENDATIONS

We recommend that studies be undertaken to measure and project the extent of the involvement of paraprofessionals and nonprofessionals engaged in social work activities, and that a specific focus of these studies be the determination of the kinds of continuing education programs that would be most helpful in extending professional social work training to them.

We recommend that Federal manpower training programs for professional social workers be maintained and strengthened to continue their ability to participate actively in the delivery of health care services to expanding segments of the American public.

TRAINING AND EDUCATION FOR MINORITY BUSINESS

Background

Equality of opportunity is a concept which has special applicability to minority participation in business enterprise. Minority citizens own or have substantial interest in only 4 percent of American business. The concern, however, is not merely precise parity between the number of minority citizens and their share of American business. For obvious practical reasons, rigid application of such a formula would be unrealistic and no doubt unachievable. However, the marked disparity between business ownership by minorities and the majority community suggests a striking imbalance which has been recognized by the Federal Government through the creation of the Office of Minority Business Enterprise and the development of a host of special programs sponsored by the Small Business Administration and other Federal agencies. As greater Federal effort was expressed during the past decade to give substance to the concept of equal opportunity, the business world, as it pertained to minority citizens, was also encompassed. To date, approximately $4 billion has been made available specifically to support the emergence and expansion of minority business, yet SBA reports that the cumulative loss rate is 33 percent, seven times the 4.5 percent rate for all its loan programs.

It has been generally acknowledged that business ownership constitutes an investment not only in an enterprise but in the community and the system. The social value of having minorities own businesses is self-evident. The prospect for stability within the community and the society at large is enhanced if business is seen as an institution which is open and accessible to all citizens. A community which presumably finds itself constantly being serviced by the majority, which finds the majority community invariably in positions of economic power, or which must depend upon the majority for employment and most economic services will suffer a loss of self-esteem and thus be more vulnerable to either disruption or a lack of interest in the preservation and development of the community. This is a principle which is generally recognized by both the majority and minority communities and provides an important rationale for developing minority enterprise.

The record of performance of minority businesses to date is disturbing. As reported in both the reports of a Task Force on Education and Training for Minority Business Enterprise (September 1973) and a recent study of minority-owned businesses in three American metropolitan areas conducted by the General Accounting Office, minority businesses have experienced an unusually high casualty rate (even for small businesses) and are generally in a precarious condition. It would seem that in spite of the $4 billion spent on minority enterprise, the picture for minority business is still bleak.

There are obviously many causes which contribute to this situation; and the concern of this council is directed to only one segment of that problem—namely, management assistance and particularly training and education as key components of that assistance. This concern is justified not only because of the special mandate of the Council but more importantly because training and education have not been assigned priority as ways of increasing the potential success of minority businesses. Of the total amount directed toward expanding or strengthening minority enterprise, only $2 million has been spent on training and education programs. This investment is negligible if we recognize that one of the principal causes of business failure among minorities is their lack of knowledge of or experience with business and management practices. The problem is further compounded by the high risk nature of Federal investment in minority enterprise—a level of risk which gives added urgency to closing this knowl-

edge gap. Management competence could ameliorate the severe casualty rate among minority businesses.

In pursuing the issue of training and education for minority business enterprise, the Council has been assisted by the two previously mentioned reports but has highlighted those observations and recommendations which it considers most important. We realize that our recognition of this problem or the recommendations that we propose are not unique. However, a concerted focus on the training and education needs of minority business can reenforce the observations of other concerned groups; and the Council's support of community service and continuing education measures to deal with this crucial problem contributes further to the recognition that new initiatives for minority enterprise are in order. The following represent the more salient issues which we consider worthy of fuller exploration.

Knowledge and Experience Gap

The knowledge gap about management principles and practices is a major deterrent to business success among minority citizens. This can be explained in part by the residue of educational neglect which continues to afflict minority citizens. Efforts of the previous decade to reduce disparities in educational opportunity and educational attainment have not yet been fully realized, and this condition has special meaning if one attributes to the educational system training in both practical areas germane to business as well as values and attitudes which prepare individuals to assume risks, engage in innovation, and develop the attitudes required to perform in a competitive and a highly volatile economic situation. The question, therefore, is one of equipping individuals with the skills which are required to operate a business successfully as well as the concepts which orient individuals to the kind of behavior which increases the possibility of entering and successfully adapting to business. No doubt the acquisition of this knowledge must occur at the elementary and secondary levels or must be provided through special programs which compensate for the unwillingness or inability of early education to provide such experiences. Achievement motivation which is deemed critical to generating a capacity for entrepreneurship relates to a behavioral orientation which has roots in early educational experiences; and any interest in adding to the reservoir of minority business candidates must consider ways whereby the educational process at these levels can contribute to developing such an orientation. By serving this need, the likelihood of producing persons who are potentially educable and trainable for participation in business is enhanced.

Higher Education

A principal source of managerial talent is produced through schools of business administration. This source has not been particularly helpful to minority enterprise. Schools of business administration frequently gear their training to persons who are candidates for larger national firms. Many of the businesses for which minority persons are potential owners are likely to be small; and small business entrepreneurship has been generally neglected by business administration departments. This realization raises the question of what can be done to direct an appropriate amount of attention within the academic community to the special needs of small businessmen and particularly the special concerns of minority businessmen. Some attention is already being given to this problem as evidenced by the Small Business Institute, a relatively new and experimental program sponsored by the Small Business Administration. The program uses schools and departments of business administration as a means of counseling businesses which are identified by SBA as having difficulties. The indicator of difficulty is the loan repayment performance of the particular business which in turn is used as a case by a school of business servicing the area in which the business is located. The program has merit in providing technical assistance to a select number of faltering businesses and gives colleges and universities an opportunity to develop a greater understanding of the small businessman and his problems. However, the program is designed to handle problem cases and does not address itself to stimulating entrants into business nor does it represent a service available to businessmen at the critical threshold of entry. Such programs are typical of the Federal interest which too often expresses itself at a time when the future of the business is uncertain. The Federal effort has not been sufficiently concerned with inputs which could nurture the business through its critical formative stages and give it more viability from the outset.

The lack of expertise in the field of minority business is obviously a major drawback to a more encouraging projection of minority business growth. There is insufficient expertise in the field of minority entrepreneurship which might service institutions and thus give them a strong capability in this area. Consideration should, therefore, be given to special programs which will create a pool of talent which can improve

the teaching and consulting capacities of a select number of institutions that would in turn regard minority businessmen as a special client group.

Research Possibilities

The picture which emerges is one of incredible ad hocism in deciding which businesses are likely to be good risks or which offer good opportunities for minority investment. There is certainly no special domain which should be carved out for minority businessmen; nor should any policy be invoked which would limit minority entrepreneurship to a specific area. However, the chances for investments to be successful might be improved if research into the field of potential areas of investment could delineate fields that could be fruitfully explored by minority citizens. A related point concerns those special skills and traditions which particular minority groups might bring to particular areas of business. Some minority groups have already capitalized upon their traditions and cultural background for business purposes. This possibility might exist for most minority groups. As useful roles for colleges and univerities wishing to assume a responsibility for minority enterprise are contemplated, these questions might be considered for research purposes.

Possible Training Approaches

Generally programs of continuing education for minority businessmen or prospective minority entrepreneurs either include courses which deal with practical business problems such as bookkeeping and inventory control or are direct counseling programs which place an occasional student or a faculty member in an advisory or technical assistance relationship to a particular business. Both approaches have merit but do not adequately account for the vastness of the problem. Translating classroom experiences directly to a business does not occur with sufficient success to permit this method to serve as the primary approach to the problem. In part, classroom experiences cannot account for all of the contingencies which may impinge upon a minority businessman. Also, confidence is a key factor in business success; and this cannot be easily instilled through the usual courses dealing with the practical side of business. Certain observations of minority business training and counseling programs based upon a limited number of field experiences indicate that direct counseling is possibly an essential way of improving the prospect of success among minority businessmen. This is obviously an expensive and time-consuming method and should be regarded as an extension of course or classroom activity. What has not occurred is a systematic approach to dispensing such service. There seems to be a need to expand and systemize this approach.

Those receiving business loans either from commercial banks or from Federal agencies should be encouraged and possibly required to accept technical assistance as a requirement for participating in a loan program. Under this arrangement, the counseling and technical assistance given to businesses might have a more obvious relationship to the loan received, the judgments which went into determining that the loan constituted an acceptable risk, and the financial analysis of what factors would have to be present and supported if the business were to make it. Experience to date indicates that management assistance to businesses is often given when the business is faltering and consequently when remedial action is not likely to be maximally effective. The thrust should rather be upon businesses which are being initiated and which are deemed to be potentially successful if certain economic and management conditions can be satisfied. Sporadic inputs of assistance given belatedly to businesses which have already consumed substantial investment are counterproductive since this exacerbates the impression that minority businesses cannot succeed. Such an impression adversely affects that confidence factor, both among minority citizens and financial institutions, which is already seriously impairing the growth of minority business. However, arrangements which make continuing education and training a prerequisite for receiving financial assistance would allow greater participation of banks and other lending institutions in this effort and give them a strong vested interest in the outcome. It is interesting to contemplate the kind of an expanded role for postsecondary institutions which might be evolved if training and counseling could be purposefully linked to loan policies.

Accessibility of Technical Assistance

It is equally obvious that the accessibility of technical assistance or advisory services is a factor which appreciably influences the success prospects of the minority businessman. As expressed by the Office of Minority Business Enterprise:

"The plight of the minority entrepreneur is especially desperate because he may not even know where

to turn for technical assistance or may not feel he can afford it. It is important that he be directed to sources of assistance not only while he is setting up his business, but also on a continuing basis *(emphasis provided) so that help will be available to cope with problems as they arise.*" (P. 40, "A Report to Congress by Comptroller General of the United States," Nov. 8, 1973.)

Some institutions may have an advantage in providing such assistance. Those schools which are identified with a particular community or schools which have community service as an explicit mission might be singled out for a role in helping minority businesses. This might involve less reliance upon established schools of business and management and more emphasis on community colleges whose ties with the community are often stronger. This is not to suggest that redirecting established schools of business education toward the special needs of minority entrepreneurship should not be continued. This resource will no doubt remain important but must be extended through programs and centers which have community service as an objective. For example, as community colleges become more avowedly committed to community service, their programs should include counseling and training for minority businesses. This is clearly a fertile area for community colleges to consider.

In responding to the notion of a readily available and continuing service, the principle of community-based centers should be considered. Experience in other areas such as health and legal aid indicates that service which is in physical proximity to the problem and its victims has distinct advantages. The major advantages would probably be those of accessibility and continuity of service. Such centers would presumably have links with educational resources within the community and would also constitute a vehicle through which various voluntary programs such as SCORE [1] might be channeled. A focal point through which service can be rendered and received is needed if appropriate service is going to be provided on a timely and opportune basis. This concern for a community based service is particularly valid when one realizes that more traditional forms of consultancy are not economically within the reach of many minority businessmen and might not even be relevant to their problems. Again, the stress upon special programs and structures does not preclude additional efforts to make more traditional and established sources of management assistance available to the minority businessman. For example, loans to minority businessmen might include funds which would be earmarked for extensive consultancy which might not otherwise be affordable.

[1] Service Corps of Retired Executives—a volunteer assistance program which provides aid to minority business owners.

Appropriate Target Groups

The lack of a systematic approach to training and education of minority businessmen has had crucial consequences for those interested in mounting programs for such clients. Although discursive efforts have been made to reach this clientele, there is still a paucity of knowledge about what needs to be done. Demonstration efforts which test the validity of various educational and training patterns in meeting the requirements of the minority business community should be explored. This exploration should include distinctions between programs which are designed primarily to augment the pool of persons entering the business arena and those which are for persons presently engaged in business. Remedial training is presently the major educational service available to minority entrepreneurs. As needed as this is, such an approach can not adequately promote the objective of greater minority participation in business.

Any review of programs for minority enterprise must consider the total educational system in terms of where appropriate interventions can be made to stimulate more minority participation in business. Clearly the college graduate who may have decided upon a career or who may feel more inclined to join a large organization or bureaucracy may be a less likely prospect for business ownership than a promising high school graduate whose career choices are still formative. Programs aimed at this student category should be considered. Also, the value orientation which is deemed important in making a success of a business career has to be cultivated at an early stage of education. Therefore, programs of continuing education for minority enterprise must include inputs into both the elementary and secondary schools which will instill attitudes and values which can be built upon later as students make career choices.

Expanded Role for Business and Financial Institutions

Other significant resources to minority businesses are private businesses and financial institutions. By meshing their expertise with postsecondary institutions which do have a continuing education responsibility, a valuable resource could be tapped. Obviously incen-

tives must be provided to make training and educational programs attractive to commercial institutions.

A barrier to financial and business institutions playing a more active role in underwriting minority business is obviously linked to the probable failure rate of such businesses. If banks and businesses can be subsidized for programs designed for minority businessmen and if such programs can have an integral relationship to minority borrowers, then the ingredients might be present for a more active role for private institutions which have considerable expertise to relay. By including traditional lending institutions and businesses, the resource base of continuing education programs can be expanded and a larger constituency included. In principle, this approach is a part of the program of the Office of Minority Business Enterprise but needs to be expanded.

Summary

The problem of training and education for minority business persons involves immediate and long-range strategies which would stem the tide of minority busines failure and the low level of minority participation in business.

In treating the problem of a high casualty rate among minority businesses, the Council prefers programs which are supportive of the management needs of minority entrepreneurs at the entry level stage and at appropriate intervals throughout the development of the business. Although service extended to businesses which are in trouble must be continued, we feel that to emphasize this kind of assistance is not likely to be effective if the goal is to produce a larger number of well-established enterprises. Our findings also suggest that such service cannot be limited to classroom activities but must include counseling and technical assistance geared to specific problems. Training and educational efforts must be extended and reinforced through ongoing programs which are capable of providing assistance when corrective or preventive action can make the difference between success and failure.

To develop more relevant and far-reaching training and technical assistance capabilities requires a resource base which can provide the knowledge and expertise to mount such efforts. We have, therefore, proposed an expanded Federal effort which would subsidize collegs and universities that would make minority enterprise a priority continuing education concern. This emphasis must accompany programs of a more direct action nature. This constitutes an initial step in creating an infrastructure which will give strength and credibility to educational and training programs for minority business enterprise. □

RECOMMENDATIONS

We recommend that increased Federal support be given to a select number of postsecondary institutions which would serve as resource centers through which research, training, and technical assistance programs for minority business enterprise would be developed. We further recommend that such resource centers be community-based and utilize the expertise of local businesses and financial institutions.

We also recommend that these resource centers make practical business experience available to minority business candidates through intern or apprenticeship programs involving especially successful businesses, including those owned by minorities.

FEDERAL SUPPORT FOR THE ARTS AND HUMANITIES IN HIGHER CONTINUING EDUCATION

As the United States approaches the celebration of the American Revolution Bicentennial, the history of the Nation, particularly its cultural heritage, promises to become the focus of considerable speculation by passers-by and scholars alike. From the beginning, the American experience has had one fundamental premise, bequeathed to the nation by the Founding Fathers: that this Nation has both a conceptual basis and an institutional framework. In their single-mindedness, the Founding Fathers were determined to cement the relationship between political philosophy and political activism.

The coupling of philosophy and action provided a Constitution that worked. It also set a precedent for the value that would be given to the usefulness of knowledge and to the place that men of intelligence could play in public affairs. Such a precedent also helped to shape what has since become a unique Amerian contribution to higher education as reflected in the land-grant concept: knowledge based on sound research that can be applied to the immediate needs of a clientele.

Constitutional Silence

Despite the credentials the Founding Fathers had as men of learning and action, as artisans and scientists, it is surprising how little the Constitution has to say about the role that the arts and humanities would play in their vision of a new republic. Article I of the Constitution comes closest to broaching the subject when it says that the Congress shall "promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries."

The constitutional position is a distant one. It is protective and legal. It is, at best, only indirectly supportive of what the 89th Congress subsequently specified as the disciplines of the arts and humanities when it created the National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities Act of 1965.[1]

In the intervening generations between the Continental Congress and the 89th Congress, with only brief, cautious exceptions, Federal support for the arts and humanities has remained minimal. This practice paralleled a similarly circumscribed practice toward Federal support of educational activities in general. Such support, the Constitution implied, was properly the responsibility of the several States, at least as far as education and the humanities, which were closely linked, were concerned. As for the performing and visual arts, a tradition independent of both Federal and State action evolved which assumed that such activities were more properly within the purview of the private sector and of public philanthropy.

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[1] The mandate for Federal support of the arts is Public Law 89-209; under that act, the arts are defined as including (but not exclusively) the following: Music; dance; drama; folk art; creative writing; architecture and allied forms; painting; sculpture; photography; graphic and craft arts; industrial design; costume and functional design; motion pictures; television; radio; tape and sound recording; the arts related to the presentation, performance, execution, and exhibition of major art forms; and the study and application of the arts to the human environment.

The mandate for Federal support of the humanities is Public Law 89-209; under that act, the humanities are defined as including (but not exclusively) the following: Language, both modern and classical; linguistics; literature; history; jurisprudence; philosophy; archaeology; comparative religion; ethics; the history, criticism, theory, and practice of the arts; those aspects of the social sciences which have humanistic content and employ humanistic method; and the study and application of the humanities to the current conditions of national life.

Federal Patronage

In an impressive and relatively abrupt departure from the past, it is now commonly accepted that the Federal Government is the largest single patron of the arts and humanities in the country. When we think of those Federal agencies which today provide support to cultural programs, we think rightfully of the National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities, the Office of Education, the National Science Foundation, the Smithsonian Institution, the Corporation for Public Broadcasting, and perhaps even the Department of Interior's Park Service and the American Revolution Bicentennial Commission.

But the true precursors of these agencies were other agencies which we do not normally associate with such activities. Among these are the Treasury Department, whose Procurement Division was one of the predecessors of the Work Projects Administration of the mid-thirties; the General Services Administration, the housekeeping unit of the Federal Government which administers the Archives of the United States; the Department of Agriculture, which at one time sponsored a rural theater program through the Cooperative Extension Service; the State Department, whose cultural and educational exchanges on an international level preceded similar exchanges on the domestic level; and, not to be underestimated even today, the Department of Defense, whose military installations have often served as the only cultural facility available to the public in certain isolated areas.

Work Projects Administration

Of historic preeminence in the evolution of Federal support for the arts and humanities is the series of legislation, supported by President Roosevelt, that led to the creation of the Work Projects Administration. WPA eventually employed thousands of artists and writers in the service of the Federal Government, largely as embellishers of public buildings and, through work-relief programs, as teachers in the lower schools.

WPA, it should be remembered, was essentially a work-relief program, and not a program designed specifically to support artists and humanists. During the depression, artists were particularly hard hit by unemployment, and rather than deny them the employment benefits of existing Federal programs, they too were made eligible for Federal relief assistance.

This distinctive period of Federal art patronage (1933–43) is only now beginning to be reappraised. The available scholars have described the period as productive and have called the participation of the Federal Government in support of cultural activities constructive. There were problems and controversy, to be sure, and the degree to which Federal administrators insisted on exercising some control over the work of the artists led some artists to choose not to participate in the programs.

In short, though, the judgment of the scholars of the WPA period seems to be that the quality of work was not adversely affected by Federal exercise of some control; and further, that significant works of art might not have been produced had not such federally supported programs existed.

Another 15 years were to pass before there would appear another major piece of Federal legislation that would broadly involve the Federal Government with not only artists, but humanists. Through the creation of the National Science Foundation and the passage of the National Defense Education Act, Congress began a significant chapter in outlining with more clarity its distinctive and largely self-serving interest in institutions of higher education.

The resources that the Government needed to respond to what it conceived as a threat to national security (Soviet technological achievements and American technological failings), prompted Congress to broaden its support of varied university-based research and training programs. Although congressional interest naturally inclined toward those programs especially designed to meet technical and scientific needs, caution was early taken to provide training and research support to all of the academic disciplines to avoid irredeemably unbalancing support for the scientific disciplines and the humanistic disciplines.

Teacher Training

Through the National Defense Education Act, therefore, and through other teacher-training legislation, especially the National Science Foundation Act of 1950, the Higher Education Act of 1965, and the Education Professions Development Act of 1967, Federal support for the humanities has resulted most often as an indirect result of Federal legislation affecting its promotion of the teaching profession. (The evolution of Federal teacher-training activities is elaborated in the Council's Sixth Annual Report, "A Question of Stewardship.")

A similar set of circumstances did not prevail which would have enabled the Congress to ease more gently toward expanding Federal support for the arts and artists. Indeed, when enabling legislation was being prepared in support of establishing the National Foun-

dation on the Arts and the Humanities, a common presumption then was that strong congressional support in favor of higher education, which was readily translatable into support for humanists per se, would provide enough thrust within Congress to override the more determined opposition to Federal support for the arts. Indeed, all early efforts to encourage Federal support of the arts had to be made defensively and with elaborate reasoning to justify the "ornamental" as opposed to what many believed to be the pressing necessities of society.

A major reason for this opposition was the sanctification given to the assumption that artistic development rested upon the private sector for support. There may even have been some lingering and honest fears that Federal "intrusion" into this field might unintentionally be detrimental to it.

Institutional Base

Further, artists were not like humanists, scientists, lawyers, and doctors. They did not have an easily definable institutional base. Training for the artistic professions was provided then, as it is largely now, outside and beyond the academic campus. Individual artists are likely to be independent of academic affiliation. Others may have only intermittent contact with them, and then only as teachers of art and not in the more preferred roles as performers and practitioners of art. Without such a shelter, Federal agencies were deprived access to the institutional base they routinely seek as one assurance that a third party shall exercise some control over the quality of the work to be produced.

Often in the public mind, and certainly in the mind of the Congress when it established the National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities, the arts were joined with the humanities as if the two were natural appendages of a common body. Such an assumption, although frequently convenient, is often wrong.

Indeed, many artists not only view academic institutions unsympathetically, but many may find an academic environment—and humanists—as oppressive to their creativity as they may find other less liberal environments. The humanities are at the core of tradition-bound institutions that, more than most other institutions, are disinclined to change. Humanists have a professional interest in the past. While the same may be true for many artists, they, more than others in society, may well deserve a bohemian reputation for being less inclined to respect the past as they may be more inclined to experiment with innovation.

Artists and Humanists

Artists and humanists, in short, are more frequently linked by others than they are found embracing of their own volition. Because the number of artists who earn a living solely through their art is limited, however, artists frequently join the ranks of the teaching profession in an effort to supplement their incomes. Given this fact, artists can be identified with academic institutions more so than with any other institution.

Academic institutions, and especially colleges and universities, have played a largely unheralded role in the sanctuaries they have often provided to various art forms. One wonders what would have happened to band and choral music, local theater productions, and the sponsorship of dance ensembles had it not been for university-level interest. Universities have given wide exposure to various art forms and may even have helped to salvage others from extinction as a result of their ongoing interest and patronage of them.

But universities and colleges are looked upon largely as preparatory and training institutions that provide entrance to the various professions. Almost as a singular exception, entrance into the artistic professions generally does not come through the academic curriculum. A handful of institutions do provide such training and "licensure," but these are few in number and do not reflect the status of the arts on most campuses. Independent and private conservatories, drama schools, dance groups, and art institutes have generally provided such apprenticeship.

Because only limited tax moneys have been used to support the maintenance and expansion of the arts in this country, many of these private and independent training schools are annually subjected to serious economic blight. The trend in recent years has been a reduction in the number of such schools, just as there has been a slow but discernible increase in the formal interest academic institutions are beginning to take in the arts. University-based schools and departments of drama, art, music, sculpture, and painting (with ancillary educational opportunities in choreography, photography and films, stage production, and lighting and a variety of other arts and crafts) are appearing with sustained regularity. Moreover, many of the previously independent professional schools have, or are considering, some kind of appropriate academic affiliation.

University Training

If universities are willing to provide acceptable training programs for veterinarians, physicists, technicians, nurses, dentists, agronomists, literary scholars, and gym instructors, is there anything inherently incompatible that would prevent the universities from also training artists and craftsmen for their professions? Traditionally, the answer has been "yes." Another answer that now seems to be emerging is "well, perhaps not."

Largely through the programs of the National Endowment for the Arts, and on a lesser financial scale but with as much focus, within the Office of Education's arts and humanities program, Federal agencies are extending support to artists. (Arts endowment appropriations for fiscal year 1973 amounted to $38.2 million, with an additional $6.5 million appropriated for the State partnership program, and $3.5 million available from the Treasury to meet private gifts.)

In the case of the Office of Education, the concern is with arts in eduction; that is, art as taught in the schools. As such, the Office of Education's program represents one of the few consistent efforts on the part of a Federal agency to introduce the arts into the elementary and secondary school curriculums. (Fiscal year 1973 expenditure for the artists-in-schools program: $600,000.)

(It should also be noted that this program was initiated within the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare—it was not congressionally mandated—and represents an early attempt by HEW to increase the visibility of its support for the arts and humanities per se. This program serves as an advocate for the arts and humanities; it has no appropriated funds for grantmaking.)

Adult Needs

Within the arts endowment, however, through a variety of its programs, there is a concerted effort to relate the work of artists, from whichever base they operate, including academic institutions, to the needs of the adult population. Some of these needs may be educational, others may be recreational.

Similarly, the National Endowment for the Humanities, through its public programs, has exercised considerable leadership in promoting the humanities for the adult population. (NEH fiscal year 1973 appropriations amounted to $34.5 million, with an additional $3.5 million available to match private grants. In fiscal year 1973, the Division of Public Programs was allocated $12.7 million of this amount.) In both instances, the adult population is not necessarily fragmented into ethnic, age, economic, or other definable groups, which is the common practice of many welfare-oriented agencies. The focus is often clearly on the general public.

The humanities endowment draws heavily upon the cooperation of academic institutions, where the majority of humanists are located; whereas the arts endowment only incidentally sees institutions of higher education as a likely resource base to promote the arts among the general public.

The Smithsonian Institution, although basically a collection of museums with a heavy interest in mounting exhibits and describing and cataloging the incomparable artistic and historical collections under Federal control, also has developed modest outreach programs for the adult American public, but largely without the benefit of university cooperation. These outreach programs are evident in the Museum of Art's Extension Service (traveling exhibits) and the Smithsonian's Office of Public Service, which sponsors programs for adults, public festivals, and a variety of special events and publications. Again, academic institutions are not substantially involved in these activities.

The Corporation for Public Broadcasting, although a private, nonprofit corporation, operates on a budget that is largely dependent upon congressional appropriations. Congressional appropriation for fiscal year 1973 was $30 million, with an additional $5 million available to match private gifts. The Corporation's total expenditure for fiscal year 1973 was $41.1 million.

CPB's present programing priorities do not reflect any special interest in education programs designed to meet the special needs of the adult population. Because of a limited budget, and its own internal set of priorities, the Corporation has concentrated on children's programs, cultural programs, and public affairs—three program areas which do not draw a very great distinction between its own educational programing and that of commercial programing. Again, the Corporation is not substantially involved with university-based mass media facilities or other academic resources. The major recipients of Corporation grants are State and local radio and television stations.

There are other federally funded programs that provide occasional or indirect adult education programs. Among these can be listed the Park Service and its recreational and environmental activities; the informal cultural activities supported through Defense's military installations around the globe; and of more immediate relevance, the "planning" activities of the American Revolution Bicentennial Commission, a nongranting agency authorized to mobilize and coordinate the Fed-

eral Government's participation in the celebrations of 1976. (Fiscal year 1973 appropriations for the Commission were approximately $7.6 million.)

Arts and Humanities Foundation

Clearly, then, the focus of the Federal support for the arts and humanities is most credibly represented by the National Endowment for the Arts and the National Endowment for the Humanities, whose combined expenditures for fiscal year 1973 amounted to $93.6 million. The distinctions between the activities of the two endowments—their grant recipients, grant focus and results—are several and sometimes obvious. But there is a commonness of interest between the two endowments that is of direct interest to extension and continuing education.

First, each agency has a special concern for relating its clientele (artists and humanists) to the adult population and the broader issues of public affairs. Each in its own way seeks to be "relevant" to the public's need for education and enlightment and, in so doing, continues the special American call to apply meaningfully the benefits of research and scholarship to public affairs. In this regard, the two endowments have made major efforts to use the arts and humanities to achieve a variety of social objectives. This includes promoting ethnic identity through cultural and historical exploration, and using the performing arts to express more vividly the ideas of those who fall outside the mainstream of the American cultural heritage—for example disadvantaged, dissident, or even radical groups.

Each endowment has a pronounced determination to involve local communities and local institutions in cooperating with it to reach large segments of the public. Each makes varying degrees of use of educational institutions to support its programs through institutional resources and facilities. And each has sought to establish a network of State agencies and advisory councils to assist in identifying and implementing programs for State and local consumption.

State Programs

Like the Office of Education's arts and humanities program and the programs of the Corporation for Public Broadcasting, both endowments have initiated State-grant programs to reallocate Federal tax revenue to enhance State planning and implementation of arts and humanities programs. Through matching requirements and cost-sharing, the financial burden of operating endowment projects is leavened. These financial arrangements are designed to reinforce the belief that support for the arts and humanities must be generated by a partnership betwen the public and private sector and among the various levels of National, State, and local government agencies. By encouraging grassroots support for these activities, one assurance at least is given to prevent the imposition by the Fedral partner of a program that may be incompatible to the other partners.

Although each endowment has at its disposal a number of programs that establish direct contact with institutions of higher education, the State grant programs provide the opportunity for a second reallocation of tax moneys, via the State agencies, to universities and colleges.

Where within these institutions these moneys and programs eventually rest is difficult to determine. On the surface, it would appear the extension facilities of these institutions would be likely candidates to spearhead the universities' participation to extend its cultural resources to the public. But this is not frequently the case.

Academic humanists, and even those artists affiliated with academic institutions, are housed in their respective departments. In our Seventh Annual Report, "A Measure of Success," the Council described what it felt to be a fairly universal practice: that Federal funds, with university approval, tend to reach those academic departments or units which house the expertise most relevant to its own or Federal program objectives.

In that report, we stated that both Federal agencies and academic universities systematically bypassed extension and continuing education structures, even when federally funded extension and continuing education activities were visibly the focus. In the case of the arts endowment, it should be added, not only is there a tendency to bypass the extension network in the endowment's efforts to reach the public, but there is a more pronounced tendency to bypass academic institutions themselves. The arts endowment is making strenuous efforts to awaken and support other community institutions, like libraries, museums, community centers, and business and commercial organizations, in order to generate institutional responses to local needs.

State Councils

There is a major exception of interest, however, and that is reflected in the composition of the membership of the State advisory councils set up by the

National Endowment for the Humanities. Currently, it is estimated that approximately 10 of the chairmen of these State councils serve in or come out of university-based extension resources. Further, it is approximated that within 35 of the State councils, extension deans, administrators, and staff are represented.

In addition, the humanities endowment through its Public Programs Division has made substantial grants to university-based extension facilities. Two of the original public programs' projects were housed within the extension units of the Universities of Georgia and Missouri. Other extension units have subsequently received support, including the University of Iowa and the University of California at San Diego.

At the latter institution, one of the most acclaimed, innovative, and popular programs for adult education has led to the creation of adult education via newspapers. Outstanding humanists contribute substantial articles, using the humanities as their focus, on a variety of themes. In cooperation with local institutions, local newspapers reprint a series of humanities "lectures" for which anyone may receive academic credit upon registration, testing, and periodic seminars administered by the local participating institutions.

This is only one example of what might be possible through an imaginative use of academic extension facilities. The reasons why more such programs do not emanate from extension units of the university are sometimes obscure, although the Council has attempted to enumerate some of these in its Seventh Annual Report (see the chapter, "An Uneasy Co-Existence: The Federal Government and Higher Continuing Education").

Academically based artists and humanists in the past have not necessarily distinguished themselves through their commitment to public service and community involvement. In some instances, their opposition to greater university involvement in public service has been instrumental in defeating any institutional thrust in that direction.

The fact, however, that so much of the cultural activity sparked by the Federal Government is intended to benefit broad segments of the American public must have special significance and potential for university-based extension and continuing education resources. The avenues that are opened via these resources between the campus and the city are substantial.

These avenues carry traffic in both directions. As custodians of a vast cultural heritage, universities have pressing responsibilities to maintain that heritage and to help disseminate it. With accelerating Federal support, entirely new dimensions of community participation are opening up to universities through the very disciplines that have been most traditionally associated with the universities and which, in theory, may represent to some the least compromise to their own professional involvement in community affairs.

By helping artists and humanists extend themselves beyond the campus, Federal activity is helping to provide vast new audiences, willing to learn, willing to appreciate, and eventually, willing to join in discourse on the public issues of the day. By helping to inform the public, artists and humanists help to inform themselves. Slowly, perhaps, this reciprocity of learning will make itself felt in the kinds of teaching and research that occur at the universities, and in strengthening our understanding of how appropriate is the participation of artists and humanists in public affairs. □

RECOMMENDATIONS

We recommend that the American Revolution Bicentennial Commission and the National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities jointly promote public participation in the celebration of the American Revolution by using university extension services to involve artists and humanists in community planning of bicentennial activities.

We recommend that elderly members of ethnic groups be trained to teach ethnic cultures to schoolchildren at the earliest possible level of instruction.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE

The Federal Background

Prior to enactment of the Government Employees' Training Act in 1958 (Public Law 85–508) many Federal agencies had no legal basis on which to expend funds for training their employees. What training was conducted in these agencies was often disguised in the budget lest the General Accounting Office be compelled to rule such training expenditures illegal. Except within the Defense Department and in a few other agencies which had clear authority to train their employees, education and training within the Federal Service was essentially a bootleg operation, openly referred to by this name.

Public Law 85–508

This situation changed dramatically in 1958 with the enactment of the Government Employees Training Act. In one broad statute, a national training policy was established, expenditures for training were not only made legal but were forcefully encouraged, and the U.S. Civil Service Commission was given central agency responsibility to insure that the training efforts of the Federal Government were adequate to insure a well-trained Federal work force able to cope with the complexities of modern government.

Program Directions

Today, three different arrangements are used for the education and training of Federal employees. The bulk of training activity (73.7 percent) consists of what the Civil Service Commission terms "internal" training, that is, training activities conducted by an agency for its own employees. Another 17.4 percent of the total training effort is in "nongovernment programs." Most of these nongovernment programs are university courses; some are training programs conducted by manufacturing organizations (e.g., aircraft factories), management consulting firms and various nonprofit institutions other than colleges and universities. Finally, the remaining 8.9 percent of training activity consists of "interagency training" in which the Civil Service Commission, or another agency in concert with the Commission, trains employees of other Federal agencies.

Internal Training

Some 108 training centers, established by 20 agencies of Government are now in operation. In addition hundreds of other training programs, conducted at locations other than these centers, are now available to Federal employees. These centers and other internal training programs are staffed with over 7,000 employees, and more than 700,000 Federal employees are trained in "internal" programs each year.

Costs of Internal Training

The total costs of internal training activity are highly elusive, because reporting procedures and accounting for costs vary among agencies. However, a rough approximation of the total cost can be obtained by a combination of cost factors. The direct training costs (materials, per diem, etc.) of internal training approximate $51.6 million. Roughly $100 million represents the cost of agency training staff salaries and fringe benefits, and the salary costs of trainees total approximately $360 million. This composite cost of $511,600,000 does not include the costs of training facilities and equipment and no valid estimates in this regard are available.

Interagency and Nongovernment Costs

Similarly computed interagency training costs probably approximate $48 million for the 86,000 partici-

pants in these programs, while the costs for training in nongovernment facilities are roughly $131,200,000. The total, directly visible costs to the Federal Government for education and training of its employees through internal training, interagency training, and use of nongovernment resources therefore approximate $790,800,000; and this figure does not include on-the-job training and various internship programs for which separate costs are not reported.

Nongovernment Resources

Twenty-one Federal agencies, in cooperation with 113 colleges and universities, have established 122 "off-campus study centers." These centers are essentially a location for a university extension program which uses Federal facilities in which to conduct educational programs for some 38,000 Federal employees. When the educational programs are job-related, the employing agency often pays the tuition costs involved; otherwise, the employee pays his own tuition and has the advantage of convenient access to a higher education program.

Federal Resources and State and Local Employees

The Intergovernmental Cooperation Act of 1968 and the Intergovernmental Personnel Act of 1970 authorized and directed the U.S. Civil Service Commission to become actively involved in the education and training of State and local government officials. As a practical matter, relatively little has been done in this regard. Some Federal training programs, designed essentially for Federal employees, have been opened for attendance by State and local personnel. Under funds provided by this Intergovernmental Personnel Act, a number of grants have been made to educational institutions to design and conduct educational programs for employees of local and State governments. This has been done in recognition of the ascendant role of State and local governments in implementing national programs.

Training in Specific Program Areas

While the activities and resources of the Civil Service Commission for education and training of local and State employees are rather restricted in specific program areas, considerable Federal assistance, through grants, is made available for education and training. Specifically, federally funded programs for teachers, law enforcement personnel, employees of public health departments, and personnel serving State employment agencies do exist on a large scale. However, these activities operate independently of each other through various Federal agencies, without any central coordination by the U.S. Civil Service Commission or any other single agency of the Federal Government. Therefore, while the Civil Service Commission has a clear mandate for giving leadership and direction to the Federal effort in education and training of Federal employees, neither the Commission nor any other agency of the Federal Government oversees or directs the Federal activity in education and training of State and local personnel.

Characteristics and Limitations of the Effort

The education and training of Federal employees is governed by a well-developed policy statement, expressed in Public Law 85–508. Central responsibility of the program is vested in a single agency, the U.S. Civil Service Commission. Expansion in both amount of training provided and the quality of training is evident. Yet several unresolved problems still limit the effectiveness of this effort.

Considerable testimony exists to indicate that those most worth training are not always those who receive training. Too often, the "spareable" employee is sent to training sessions; the "indispensable" employee is kept busy on his job. Although the Civil Service Commission is making active attempts to evaluate the "effectiveness of training," present techniques of evaluation fall short of conclusively showing what kinds of training, of what length and at what cost, best serve Federal purposes; and indeed, it is often difficult to show whether improvement on the job is sufficient to have warranted the training expense involved.

The rank-in-job concept governing Federal service essentially means that no adequate way exists to replace an individual sent for a long-term training experience. As a result, little use is made of training programs which exceed a month's duration. Concurrently, training experiences are often unrelated to any stable concept of career development, so that the training received does not necessarily fit well with the future utilization of the individual being trained; as a result, much valuable training is either misdirected or lost. Also, little effort is made to provide training in anticipation of new career responsibilities. The basic idea that training is a component of manpower planning and development has not yet been fully expressed.

These obstacles to greater success in the Federal training effort are well-known to many professionals within Government responsible for education and training. They have not, however, been able to get the attention and support of the policymakers to take the kinds of actions which would reduce these limitations and lead to important improvements in the training effort.

Continuing Education in the Military Departments

The military establishment has always regarded its peacetime role as essentially one of preparedness; of training to successfully cope with foreseeable emergencies. Coupled with this historic concept is the more recent concept of "force-in-being." This essentially recognizes that under certain emergency conditions time to expand and reshape the force structure may simply not be available, and that warfare may have to be waged with the structure which exists at any particular moment in time. The force-in-being concept in essence revolutionized traditional notions of strategic planning, and had a direct effect on the size of the military establishment.

Under the force-in-being approach, the size of the armed forces is less related to the necessary peacetime tasks to be performed, and more to the critical tasks which would have to be performed under emergency conditions. Viewed another way, the size of the military establishment is larger than needed to perform the standby role of military defense; but that same manpower may be critically vital for instant emergency use. In the interim, perhaps the most constructive use that can be made of standby manpower is its fullest engagement in education and training, as a way to get maximum quality of performance.

Internal Training

At the apex of the internal educational system of the Defense Department are the senior service colleges: The National War College, the Industrial College of the Armed Forces, the Army War College, the Naval War College, and the Air War College. These schools provide senior officers with an advanced education designed to improve their professional competence in positions of high responsibility. In addition, the Naval Postgraduate School and the Air Force Institute of Technology are operated as degree granting institutions (including the Ph. D. degree) to prepare officers for highly technical responsibilities in fields such as physics, engineering, and operations research.

Below these institutions is a vast array of technical and professional schools reflecting specialized instruction in fields as diverse as medicine, management, and military tactics. At given career points, selected military personnel routinely move through the internal educational system. Increasingly, they also are exposed to educational programs outside the military departments.

Continuing Education for Colleges and Universities

The use made of colleges and universities for the continuing education of military personnel is extensive and varied. It ranges from an assignment to a university graduate school as a full-time student receiving military pay to tuition assistance for part-time study on off-duty time. The military departments also provide excellent educational counseling and testing services at education centers around the globe, and furnish facilities at military sites at which university extension programs offer a range of courses, many of them leading to degrees.

Beyond this, military personnel are encouraged to continue their education through use of GI bill benefits while on active duty. In this regard, educational attainments are an important factor in the retention and promotion of officers, so that clear career advantages accrue from participating in programs of continuing education.

Public Service Education: Military and Civilian

Any comparison between continuing education programs for military personnel and civilian employees of the Federal Government reveals marked contrasts. The military officer spends much of his career continuing his education as a part of his normal responsibilities: this is rarely true of the civilian. The structure of internal training institutions for military personnel is much larger and more sophisticated, and much greater use is made of colleges and universities—particularly for long-term graduate work. In addition, the military officer's career progression is much more controlled; as a result, he can be systematically prepared throughout his career for fairly well-defined responsibilities which he will assume in his next assignment or even at the apex of his career.

The Question of Relevance

The military departments have done such an extensive and thorough job in continuing education that the major concern raised is whether they have done more than is necessary. Such a question defies specific answers. On the one hand, it is legitimate to ask whether accumulation of advanced degrees really helps military officers to perform more effectively. On the other, if one accepts the precept that there is a real virtue in the educational process itself in improving the recipient, this question becomes somewhat irrelevant.

For their own purposes, the military departments have decided to place a strong premium on continuing education. They feel that the pace of technological change, the advance of knowledge in all fields, the complexities of management in organizations as large as the military departments obviously create a demand and a need for continuing education as a career-long feature in the assignment and progress of military personnel. □

RECOMMENDATIONS

We recommend that the U.S. Civil Service Commission in its future responsibilities: (1) Give greater priority to assisting State and local governments in the education and training of their employees, (2) seek ways to better insure that the training provided meshes well with patterns of career development, (3) ascertain whether the limited use of long-term educational programs is in the public interest, and (4) help insure that training is available to those employees who can best apply the training in the improved performance of the Government's business.

We further recommend that the U.S. Civil Service Commission study the military educational system to determine the extent to which this model may provide insights and perspectives which would improve education and training in the civilian sector of public service.

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